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ABSTRACT

Developments on college campuses, and specifically at the University of South Carolina (USC), are presented in 15 articles and 3 book reviews. Titles and authors are as follows: "Assessing the Papal Visit" (Jerome N. Vereb); "How Long Does It Take to Graduate from Carolina" (Michael F. Welsh, Mark G. Shanley, Charles H. Witten); "Are the Concerns of Today's Liberal Arts Students Being Met?" (Margaret A. Cassidy); "Gender-balancing the Curriculum" (Sue V. Rosser); "Student Involvement and Its Relationship to Retention and Grade Point Averages: A Model for Assessment" (Harry B. Shucker); "The Evolution of a Contractual Right for the American College Student" (Jon C. Rogers); "The Role of Institutional Research in Higher Education (Kenneth L. Schwab, editor); "The Challenge of Effective Teaching" (Timothy J. Bergen, Jr.); "Black Students and the Future of USC" (Raymond O. Murphy, Michael F. Welsh, Ralph E. Johnson); "What Can the Soviets Teach Us about Higher Education?" (James V. Dreyfuss); "Selecting Student Staff: The Resident Advisor" (Melanie M. Grecu); "The Role of the University in a Technological Age" (Gerald R. Roys); "AIDS and Ethics on the College Campus" (Jodi A. Raybuck); "I Hated My Favorite Teachers" (G. James Burns); "Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning" (reviewed by Dorothy S. Fidler); "College" (reviewed by Sandra G. Nelson); "The Closing of the American Mind" (reviewed by Jean Mahaffey); and "A Wave of Reports on Higher Education: Bright Outlook or Stormy Forecast?" (Manuel J. Justiz). (SW)

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PURPOSE

Carolina View is an outlet for research, controversy, innovation, theory, and practices impacting today's university students. The journal serves as a communication link among academic and student affairs professionals, graduate students and alumni.

On the Cover: University of South Carolina Horseshoe scene generously made available by the artists, Donna & Jerry Locklair, River's Edge Gallery, Olanta, SC.

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Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. The co-editors will review each manuscript and send a copy of the manuscript to each of the Editorial Board members. Two to three months will elapse between acknowledgement of receipt and notification of disposition of a manuscript. The manuscript must be typed and conform with the American Psychological Association (APA) *Publication Manual*, third edition, editorial style. Manuscripts that do not conform to these guidelines will be returned to the author without review.

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4. *Kaleidoscope*. Personal opinions should not exceed 1,000 words.

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Preparation and Typing

1. Send the original and seven copies.

2. The required manuscript preparation guidelines and format will conform to APA *Publication Manual*, third edition.

3. Double-space everything, including references, quotations, tables, and figures.

4. Establish one inch margins on each page.

5. Use tables sparingly and type them on separate pages. Include only essential data and combine tables whenever possible.

6. Place authors' names, positions, titles, place of employment, and mailing addresses on the cover page only, so manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Avoid use of the generic masculine pronoun and other sexist terminology. Also, use such terms as client, student, or participant rather than subject.

8. Do not submit material under consideration by another periodical.

9. Submit manuscripts to: Editors, *Carolina View*, 109 Russell House, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina, 29208. Authors should keep a copy of their manuscript to guard against loss. NOTE: Authors bear full responsibility for accuracy.

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Our View

This was a year when a book critical of higher education became a national best seller. American institutions of higher education were faulted by the media for inability to educate their students. Everywhere one could read about students' limited knowledge of world geography or their ignorance about national political figures. But the picture painted on the state of the academy was not complete.

Reading our authors' accounts of events and programs on their campuses offers reasons to be encouraged. While *closed minds* and *cultural literacy* were popular topics, educators were recognizing the essential marriage of the humanities and sciences. Career counselors were joining with academicians to map career paths for liberal arts students. Studies were being conducted to evaluate the quality of the minority student experience with the intent of making more minority students welcome on historically white campuses. College campuses accepted the responsibility for educating students and administrators on the medical and ethical issues surrounding the AIDS epidemic.

Ecumenism became a well recognized word on the University of South Carolina campus. Religious leaders, including Pope John Paul II, visited the campus exposing students to the world's religions and providing them with an opportunity to reflect on the spiritual components of their lives. While a state university focused on topics of a religious nature, American higher education administrators were opening their minds to the improvements that could be reaped by studying the Soviet's educational system. It clearly was a progressive and dynamic year.

It is our hope that this issue of *Carolina View* will serve to remind you of all that is good in American higher education. Critics assert that the very foundations of the ivory tower are crackling. Join your colleagues, whose writing appears here, in meeting the challenges of these critics.

Editors
Char Davis
Mike Welsh

Assessing the Papal Visit

Jerome N. Vereb, C.P.

The September 11 visit of Pope John Paul II to the campus of the University of South Carolina was indeed a rich experience for the University. The Pontiff spent time with the President, faculty, staff, and students on the Horseshoe of the University prior to commencing his historic meeting with twenty-six Christian leaders from across the country. That hour long meeting touched upon topics which were both ecumenical in scope and worldwide in outreach. Finally the visit concluded with a Public Service of Christian Witness at the University's Williams-Brice Stadium at which the Scriptures were read and at which the Pontiff himself addressed a sixty-five thousand member congregation with words intended to penetrate to the meaning of the family in today's society.

Preparations for the day were intense and extended back over a year and a half. However, the invitation to the Pontiff first came from Charleston Bishop Ernest L. Unterkoefler in 1979 at the time of the preparation for the first visit of the Pope to the United States. Throughout the intervening years, President James B. Holderman and Provost Francis Borkowski made overtures to the diocese of Charleston on behalf of the University of South Carolina, expressing the interest of the academic community at Columbia in hosting a possible visit. In 1985 when Pope John Paul II decided to visit again the North American Continent, an ecumenical dimension was added to the itinerary. Visits with leading members of America's several religious families were scheduled for Miami, Los Angeles, and Columbia, South Carolina. These visits were intended to underscore the fact of America's religious pluralism and the strength of the fiber of the American people in a spirit of mutual collaboration and fellowship.

Father Jerome N. Vereb, C.P. is a Special Assistant to the President for Theology and a visiting Professor in the Department of Religious Studies at the University of South Carolina - Columbia.

The choice of the city of Columbia for the ecumenical meeting recalls the history of the nation. Columbia, named for the discoverer of the Americas, is also the alternative appellation of the United States. Its very mention telescopes events, experiences and sentiments into a single poetic word which evokes the meaning of freedom, harmony, and justice. It heralds America's ideals including freedom of religion.

In other countries, religious character is often identified with a predominating religious body or a state church. In America's religious history the note is one of pluralism and religious inter-activity. In some phases of its history the term *common witness* has emerged, when religious leaders have accepted together the task of addressing the nation's problems or identifying its blessings. The meaning of such witness is part of the Judeo-Christian tradition and stems from the martyrdom of the Macabees and the early victims of Nero's persecutions. The fear of persecution led pious subjects from Europe's Kingdoms to cross oceans to find haven on this continent but it led their descendents to face new and undreamed responsibilities in forging and maintaining a new nation. Religious harmony was always at the heart of America's idealism. Its goals have always been closely related to the spirit of the American people.

This understanding motivated more than two dozen of the religious executives from America's Protestant and Orthodox communities. When they first received an invitation from Bishop William H. Keeler, director of ecumenism from the United States Catholic Conference, to participate in a meeting with Pope John Paul II, the common response was one of sensitivity to America's religious sensibility. Their feeling was one of collaboration and anticipation.

The collaboration first occurred in the preparations for the date of September 11, the day of the meeting at the Horseshoe. The meeting was anticipated by the draft of a position paper to be presented to the Pope by one of the leaders. The paper was

to represent the views of all the participants and was drawn from both evangelical and ecumenical points of view. In the end, the paper was read by Dr. Philip Cousin, Secretary of the Council of Bishops of the African Methodist Episcopal Church and President of the National Council of Churches. The draft documented the immigrant status of the nation and its religious variety. It recalled the evangelical character of the American people who went as missionaries to other lands and who had to often renew a missionary vocation to the American people themselves. Finally, the participants asked for a greater commitment to ecumenism by the Roman Catholic Pontiff and by themselves, that America's religious ideals may be made more clear and that the vision of the Church, as represented in history, may live up to its evangelical character: "that all may be one...that the world may believe that You have sent me," (John 17:21).

Pope John Paul II responded with an address of his own: "I join my prayer to yours that the Christian communities of the United States may continue to meet with each other, to work with each other, and to pray with each other so that the Father will be glorified in the fulfillment of Christ's prayer." Earlier in the speech he remarked on the historic aspect of the day, "Although we are not yet in agreement as to how each of our Churches and ecclesial communities relates to the fullness of life and mission which flow from God's redemptive act through the Cross and Resurrection of Jesus Christ, it is no small achievement of the ecumenical movement that after centuries of mistrust, we humbly and sincerely recognize in each other's communities the presence and fruitfulness of Christ's gifts at work."

Throughout his time in Columbia both in private conversation and in his public remarks, the Pontiff was at pains to stress his understanding and admiration of America's unique commitment to seeking religious unity and harmony. "Indeed I am grateful for all the earnest ecumenical activity carried out in this country." The events of the day moved the Pontiff but also the many students and faculty who themselves were participants and/or witnesses.

Of the day itself, President James B. Holderman, wrote to Bishop Unterkoelfer: "The events of September 11, 1987, will enter the historical record of a rich and diverse culture which has been identified with the state of South Carolina since its inception. In particular, the service at Williams-Brice Stadium, which is jointly celebrated by Pope John Paul and other Christian ministers, marks a dramatic proclamation of the Word of God."

Drama was the motif for the stadium event. It was the intention of the planners of the service that the occasion would be simple but at the same time that the ceremonies would underscore the dramatic presence of the Word of God. To emphasize this fact, individual performers including Richard Thomas, Michael Keaton, Jane Wyatt, and Mcdonald Carey read passages from the Scriptures pertaining to the meaning of family life in the Judeo-Christian tradition. They were joined by Helen Hayes, Bonita Granville, and Alex English.

During the service itself, Pope John Paul II in an unprecedented gesture read the Gospel himself. Normally, when the Pontiff functions publicly, he is accompanied by a Deacon who reads the Gospel both to and for the celebrant. The proclamation of the Gospel text was the Pope's way of emphasizing the diaconate to which he was ordained. Here the Deacon is defined as servant and on a previous occasion he had declared: "I want to serve unity."

Service of unity was vigorously proclaimed in his sermon: "Today this stadium has resounded with passages from Holy Scripture bearing on the reality of the family. We have heard the plea and promise made by the young widow, Ruth; "Where ever you go I will go, where ever you lodge I will lodge, your people shall be my people and your God my God, where ever you die I will die and there be buried" (Ruth 1:16-17). To hear these words is to be moved with a deep feeling for the strength of family ties. . . The strength of family ties is outlined by the Pontiff in terms of image, symbol, and covenant. The entire experience, however, of the celebration of the Bible in terms of mutual participation by religious leaders of every persuasion emphasized a certain commitment to one's own word.

Here Ruth stood as the model. She had pledged her word to her husband and to his kin. Death did not break the bond. Her family relationship rested upon her fidelity. The service in a remarkable fashion used the image of word and the Word, to touch upon the meaning of unity. Likewise, the family, the natural entity of human bond, revealed a symbolism of the nature and depth of unity among Christians.

The prayer pattern of the worship was devised through a committee, chaired by Harvard Professor, George Huntston Williams. Local ecumenical leaders joined with national representatives to form a procession which highlighted traditional Christian symbols including the Bible, the Cross, and a banner of the Resurrection. They joined together in the Pope's prayer: "Almighty God, Creator and Lord of All, we invoke your Holy Spirit upon this family of believers. . . the company of the Apostles, the fellowship of martyrs, and the communion of saints proclaim the community of faith throughout the ages. May their discourse mingle with our attempts to witness here the call to the Kingdom. . . "

To the USC community, perhaps the highlight of the day came in terms of encouragement, when the Pope said to the students three times for emphasis: "It is good to be young, it is good to be a student, and it is good to be a student at the University of South Carolina." But the final words of his text were for all the University community in its shared vocation. "My special hope for you is this: that you will always have a great love for truth—the truth about God, the truth about man, and the truth about world. I pray that through truth you will serve humanity and experience real freedom. . . may God, the source of life and truth, bless all of you at the University of South Carolina."

Thus climaxed an ecumenical year at USC.

How Long Does It Take to Graduate from Carolina ?

Michael F. Welsh
Mark G. Shanley
Charles H. Witten

"Forever", might be the response of weary seniors when asked how long it takes to graduate. Freshmen would be more optimistic. They think it takes four years. Somewhere between four years and forever lies the truth of the matter. This study set out to determine just how long it takes the typical Carolina student to graduate. The answer has consequences for a variety of people.

Students and parents have an obvious interest in how long it will take to graduate. Every semester tuition, room and board bills serve as reminders that the longer it takes the more it costs. Bankers are also interested. They want to know when they can expect to begin receiving payments on student loans. Employers too are interested, but for other reasons. They want graduates to be competent no matter how long it has taken to complete college. Universities are beginning to realize that the level of excellence expected of their graduates may take longer to develop than was traditionally the case. Not because the students are less able, but because the expected competencies are so much more complex. In its vision for the future, Carolina fully expects that degree completion will take longer than has traditionally been the case (University, 1987).

The time required to complete college is traditionally considered to be eight semesters or four years of full-time study. But Ramist (1981), in his review of past studies of attrition, found that only 45% to 60% of students graduated within the traditional four years. Another 10% to 15% were found to graduate after the fifth year and still another 10% to 15% were found to graduate after the sixth year.

Colleges are remarkably similar in requiring 120 to 128 semester credit hours for the bachelor's degree (Anderson, 1972; Dressel & DeLisle, 1969; Spurr, 1970). The time required to complete these credits is normally considered to be four years of full-time study. Students who graduate within the four-year time frame are said to achieve on-time graduation (Astin & Green, Note 1; Lenning, Beal, & Sauer, 1980). While this four-year period is generally held as the norm, it is not universally supported as the only or even the optimum time frame for a college education. Pervin, Reik, and Dalrymple (1966) pointed out that some students actually benefited by interrupting their college educations and leaving school for various periods of time. Likewise, the *Report on Higher Education* (1971) supported the concept that a college education need not be fitted into four consecutive years and that many students might even be better served through a pattern that allowed for interruptions of varying lengths. Kesselman (1976) noted that most colleges now have mechanisms to ease the way for students who take leaves of absence from college studies.

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, in its 1971 report *Less Time, More Options: Education Beyond the High School*, suggested that formal education might best be spaced over a lifetime with less time spent on it early in life and additional time spent later in life as desired and as needed. But this same Commission was more concerned with shortening the time required to receive a degree and stated that, "We are convinced that the time spent on the way to the B.A. can be reduced now by one year for many, and subsequently most, students." (p. 11). In a subsequent report, the Carnegie Commission (1972) noted that while some colleges had instituted three-year bachelor's degree programs, they were reluctant to reduce the number of credit hours required for the degree. So the minimum time required for most students to obtain a degree was still four years.

Dr. Michael F. Welsh is the Associate Provost and an Assistant Professor of Higher Education. Dr. Mark G. Shanley is the Dean of Student Development and an Adjunct faculty member. Dr. Charles H. Witten is a Distinguished Professor Emeritus and former Vice President for Student Affairs. All three authors are affiliated with the Educational Leadership and Policies department of the College of Education at the University of South Carolina - Columbia.

Methodology

The sample population under study was the student cohorts consisting of all first-time freshmen who entered the University of South Carolina at Columbia as baccalaureate degree-seeking students during the Fall Semesters of 1976 and 1979 (Shanley, 1987; Welsh, 1984).

The entering cohort of 1976 was composed of 2,426 students and the cohort of 1979 was composed of 2,776 students. Each cohort was divided into eleven groups according to the college into which a student's declared major fell or, in the case of those who were undecided as to major, to the University Center for Undeclared Majors.

During the years encompassed by this study, changes occurred in the administrative structure of the University which saw the College of Health and Physical Education merged with the College of Public Health and Communicative Disorders to form the College of Health. To avoid confusion, the current college name was used in this study. Also, the College of Criminal Justice was established in 1977 which precluded any members of the 1976 cohort from beginning as freshmen in that college. At the same time it should be noted that shortened college names were used in the Tables as a matter of convenience. Thus, the name of the College of Business Administration was shortened to *Business*; Criminal Justice to *Justice*; Humanities and Social Sciences to *Humanities*; Science and Mathematics to *Science*; and the University Center for Undeclared Majors to *Undeclared*. (The University Center for Undeclared Majors was established in 1976 as an experimental program to improve academic advising and to serve the special needs of students who had not yet decided on a major. It was phased out due to budget cuts in 1983.)

Table 1 shows the distribution of the cohorts among these eleven colleges. The undeclared group was the largest with 1,398 students, which represented 26.9% of the combined cohorts. The next largest group was the 1,089 students in the College of Business Administration. The smallest group was found in the College of Health and was made up of 68 students.

Table 1

Distribution of the University of South Carolina's 1976 and 1979 Entering Freshman Classes by College

	Number of Students (Percent of Class)		
Colleges[a]	1976 Cohort	1979 Cohort	Total
Business	505 (20.8)	591 (21.3)	1,096 (21.1)
Criminal Justice	NA[b]	42 (1.5)	42 (0.8)
Education	148 (6.1)	103 (3.7)	251 (4.8)
Engineering	179 (7.4)	261 (9.4)	440 (8.5)
Health	40 (1.6)	28 (1.0)	68 (1.3)
Humanities	316 (13.0)	336 (12.1)	652 (12.5)
Journalism	164 (6.8)	164 (5.9)	328 (6.3)
Nursing	147 (61.)	89 (3.2)	236 (4.5)
Pharmacy	59 (2.4)	44 (1.6)	103 (2.0)
Science	275 (11.3)	314 (1.3)	589 (11.3)
Undeclared	593 (24.4)	805 (29.0)	1,398 (26.9)
Totals	2,426 (99.9)[c]	2,776 (99.9)[c]	5,202 (99.9)[c]

Note: *In the interest of brevity, shortened college names were used in all tables. The College of Business Administration was shortened to "Business;" Criminal Justice to "Justice;" Humanities and Social Sciences to "Humanities;" Sciences and Mathematics to "Science;" and the University Center for Undeclared Majors to "Undeclared."*

[a]The term "colleges" is used in the tables to refer to the various defined groups of students even though, technically, the University Center for Undeclared majors is not a college.

[b]The College of Criminal Justice was established in 1977.

[c]Total percentages less than 100 due to rounding.

Study Design

For purposes of this study, the entering freshman class was viewed as if it were a demographic cohort. A demographic cohort has been defined as a group of persons born or entering a system at the same time (Riley, Johnson, & Foner, 1972). Longitudinal analysis of a cohort has been noted by Simon (1976) as a useful method for measuring changes over time. The cohorts in the present study were measured over seven years while they were gradually depleted by attrition or graduation.

The first cohort was studied over a period beginning with the Fall Semester of 1976 and ending with the Spring Semester of 1983. The second cohort entered in the Fall Semester of 1979 and was followed until the Spring Semester of 1986. The seven-year period was chosen because it has been shown by Rugg (1983) that most attrition activity within a college cohort will have been completed within a seven year time period.

Procedures

Data for the study were obtained from the University's Student Information System data base. A computerized master

file of all first-time freshmen who entered baccalaureate degree programs in the Fall Semesters of 1976 and 1979 was established as a data baseline and was used as a reference point for subsequent analyses of the freshmen cohorts. The master file contained the student's name, student identification number, date of birth, race, sex, SAT examination scores, predicted grade point average, and the student's major.

The master file was matched against a series of student information files that had been generated at the close of each term and preserved as the official term files. These files contained the most current and accurate student data. There were 56 such *frozen* files used, one for each term and one each for the summer sessions. As the master files were matched against each *frozen* file, the enrollment status and graduation status of each member of each cohort were obtained and recorded.

Time to Graduation

Time to graduation was calculated by determining the number of months that had elapsed for each student from initial entry until graduation. This calculation included months when students were not enrolled such as during summer sessions or while stopping out. A second method which did not consider periods of non-enrollment was also used. This method involved determining the number of semesters enrolled by each student prior to graduation. In calculating the number of semesters enrolled, the two five-week summer sessions were counted as a single semester since students were restricted in the amount of course work they could complete in one summer session. Students would have to enroll in both summer sessions in order to complete the equivalent of what would be considered a full course load in a regular semester. Both of these measures were taken only on the graduating portions of the cohorts.

Results

Semesters to Graduation

The mean number of semesters that it took each group to graduate are displayed in Table 2. These were the number of semesters in which students were actually enrolled, but not necessarily continuously enrolled. For example, the mean number of semesters enrolled for students in the 1976 cohort who initially chose to major in Education was 8.17 semesters prior to graduating but these may not have been consecutive semesters because only 70.8% of the Education students graduated on time, within eight semesters. The rest were either part-time students or stopouts.

Students in the College of Pharmacy enrolled in the most semesters prior to graduation, but the program in that college is a five-year baccalaureate program and takes more semesters to complete. Otherwise, students in the 1976 cohort who entered the University as majors in the College of Health took the most semesters to graduate, but within the 1979 cohort it was the engineers who took the most. On average, the 1979 cohort took 1.33 semesters longer to graduate than did the 1976 group. Only majors in the College of Health reduced the average number of semesters it took to graduate. All other majors saw the number of semesters to graduation increase between the 1976 cohort and the 1979 cohort. The trend is clearly toward taking more semesters to graduate regardless of which major course of study is pursued.

Table 2
Mean Number of Semesters Enrolled Prior to Graduation for the 1976 and 1979 Freshman Classes by College

	Mean Number of Semesters		
College	1976 Cohort	1979 Cohort	Difference
Business	8.43	9.74	+1.31
Criminal Justice	NA	8.40	NA
Education	8.17	9.39	+1.22
Engineering	8.82	10.72	+1.90
Health	9.13	9.00	-0.13
Humanities	8.18	9.55	+1.37
Journalism	8.83	8.94	+0.61
Nursing	8.56	9.96	+1.40
Pharmacy	10.17	12.18	+2.01
Science	8.85	9.72	+0.87
Undeclared	8.58	10.18	+1.60
Combined Mean	8.54	9.87	+1.33

[a] Pharmacy is a five-year degree program which requires 10 semesters of full-time enrollment to complete.

Months to Graduation

The second measure of the length of time to graduation was the number of months that had elapsed between the date of entry to the University and the date of graduation. This measurement, unlike the number of semesters enrolled, included months during periods when students were not normally in attendance such as during summers and other vacations.

The mean numbers of months between entry and graduation for each college are listed in Table 3. Overall, students in the 1976 cohort who graduated took an average of 49.3 months to do so. Students in the 1979 cohort took an additional 1.5 months for a total of 50.8 months. A lengthened period is evident for all colleges except the College of Pharmacy. The traditional four-year period normally spent pursuing the bacca-

laureate degree is 44 months in length, thus those in the cohorts who eventually graduated took an average of 5 to 7 months longer than the traditional time to complete their degrees. Students who initially chose majors in the Colleges of Engineering or Health took the longest time to graduate regardless of cohort in which they initially entered the University. The pharmacy students in the 1976 cohort took 57.3 months and in the 1979 cohort 56.2 months, but that was a five-year program of some 56 months in length.

Table 3

Mean Number of Months to Graduation for the 1976 and 1979 Freshman Classes by College

	Mean Number of Months		
College	1976 Cohort	1979 Cohort	Difference
Business	49.5	50.5	+1.0
Criminal Justice	NA	45.0	NA
Education	46.3	48.4	+2.1
Engineering	51.0	53.6	+2.6
Health	51.2	53.0	+1.8
Humanities	48.2	49.3	+1.1
Journalism	47.5	48.0	+0.5
Nursing	48.8	52.4	+3.6
Pharmacy[a]	57.3	56.2	-0.7
Science	49.4	50.6	+1.2
Undeclared	49.4	51.9	+2.5
Combined Mean	49.3	50.8	+1.5

[a] *Pharmacy is a five-year degree program which requires 56 months of full-time enrollment to complete.*

The typical student tended to take longer to graduate than did criminal justice, education, or journalism students. As could be expected, pharmacy students took significantly longer than other students. However, nursing students in the 1979 cohort took nearly 4 months longer to complete their degrees than did their colleagues in the 1976 cohort. Engineering students took nearly 3 months longer.

Conclusions

The results of this study confirm the suspicion that the typical student takes longer than the traditional four years to graduate from Carolina. Further, it appears that there is a trend toward longer periods to degree completion.

Students who graduated from the 1976 entering cohort took about a half semester longer than the traditional eight semesters to complete their degrees. Those from the 1979 cohort took almost two semesters longer. In other words, the 1979 cohort took about one academic year longer than the traditional period to complete their degrees.

The same pattern can be seen when the time to graduation is measured in months. The 1976 cohort took slightly more than five months beyond the traditional 44 months needed to complete a degree. The 1979 cohort, on the other hand, took about seven months beyond the traditional period.

Reasons for the increasing amounts of time needed to complete an undergraduate degree at the University of South Carolina were not the primary subject of this subject but could be hypothesized and should probably be pursued in a further inquiry. Some of the reasons are fairly obvious. College costs are increasing at a rate that encourages more students to seek part-time employment and consequently, fewer to undertake full-time study. Also, an increasing number of students are older than the traditional college-aged student and find themselves unable to enroll full-time because of continuing family and career obligations. Career-minded students believe it is to their benefit to engage in cooperative programs or other employment related activities while in college in order to gain work experience and make themselves more attractive to employers upon graduation. For these reasons and others, students are taking less than a full load of courses each semester and are thus taking longer to graduate. But, the University as well is increasing the demands it makes on students, and some programs, such as the teacher preparation programs, require more courses and time to complete.

Clearly, students are taking longer to graduate from Carolina. Some of the delay may come by way of student preference, but some can also be attributed to the University's increasing expectations for students.

Additional studies similar to the ones on which this report is based should be undertaken not only at the University of South Carolina but at other institutions. If a trend towards lengthened periods of undergraduate study is established it would have important implications for institutional planners.

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Are the Career Concerns of Today's Liberal Arts Students Being Met?

Margaret A. Cassidy

Over the past few years, a great deal has been written about the future of a liberal arts education. Proponents argue that a liberal education offers its recipients skills which serve throughout a lifetime, promote creative thinking and independence, and foster job flexibility (Bok, 1978). However, adversaries could argue that the demands of our rapidly changing society are for specialists and not generalists. Despite one's perspective, it is apparent that the core of the controversy is how a liberal arts education applies to the working world. This issue is particularly salient because students today are very career minded.

During the past ten years, there has been a significant change in students' attitudes about the purpose of a college education. In 1969, the Carnegie Commission surveyed students about what was important to them regarding their college education. The study revealed that learning to get along with people was the most important while forming values and goals for their lives was second. In 1979, when students were asked the same questions, they rated getting a detailed grasp of a special field of study first, and obtaining training and skills for an occupation second (Levine, 1980).

The impact of this career-conscious trend has been evidenced by the significant decline of students majoring in liberal arts fields. In 1971, 50% of all full-time undergraduate students in U.S. universities were enrolled in a liberal arts field. In 1977, only 38% of U.S. college students were declared as liberal arts majors. As of 1982, the figure was reported to be between 10% and 20% (Miles, 1982). To note such a drastic change in only seventeen years is startling, since this decline may predict the future of liberal arts.

Certainly, this career-conscious trend coupled with waning interest in liberal arts is a substantial challenge for all liberal arts institutions. Very few liberal arts institutions have actually implemented programs to address this very concern. This lack of support for liberal arts students whose career opportunities are not as clearly defined as those in other fields could result in *career confusion* for those students. Undoubtedly, this *career confusion* is an important factor contributing to the decline in enrollment for liberal arts.

A Problem Not Recognized

Students, during the college years, will inevitably face confusion as they clarify their identity and define the role they will play in society. Human development theorists assert that this period of uncertainty is not only normal, but also educational (Erikson, 1974). The problem is not with the student experiencing confusion, but a dilemma arises when the institution fails to provide support programs to assist the student in clarifying and setting personal goals.

Perhaps one reason why many institutions have not initiated specific support programs for liberal arts majors is that there is ambiguity over not only what should be done, but also, who should be responsible for it. Until someone takes the initiative to acknowledge *career confusion* as a particular problem, it is likely to persist.

Career services personnel often have been accused of not having a clear idea about the skills and abilities which the liberal arts provide (Hiley, 1983). Since liberal arts are such comprehensive disciplines with numerous career options for each major, the task of advising these students becomes an enormous one especially for offices with limited resources and personnel.

Career specialists, on the other hand, may contend that the real issue is not that of poor advising but one which stems from a lack of career interest exhibited by the liberal arts students themselves. In 1980, Montana State University conducted a study that revealed that fewer than 25 of its 650 undergraduate students majoring in a liberal arts field sought career planning

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and placement services in a given year (Weaver & Haviland, 1980). This statistic should not be surprising because most businesses do a very limited recruitment search for liberal arts students. This situation, coupled with the fact that most liberal arts students do not have a career objective, severely hampers career placement for liberal arts students.

Many career counselors believe that part of this scenario could be averted if liberal arts faculty took more of an active role in the career development of their students; however, on most campuses, academic and career preparation are conceptually and functionally distinct. Faculty members rarely consider career preparation as part of their academic responsibilities (Hiley, 1983). Since neither the faculty nor the career services personnel take the initiative to provide the liberal arts students with sufficient resources, it is little wonder that career apathy among liberal arts students is so widespread.

In addition to the confusion over who is responsible for the career preparation of liberal arts students, there is another contributing factor which precludes *career confusion* from being recognized as a significant problem. Many institutions already feel that they are addressing *career confusion* by providing liberal arts students with the opportunity to relate education and work through cooperative education and internship programs. In 1981, the Association of American Colleges conducted a survey of 600 institutions to determine how responsive colleges and universities have been to the career interests of liberal arts students. Of the 214 institutions which responded, 91% of the respondents indicated that some form of internship experience was available for liberal arts students. Only 11% indicate that they offer workshops specifically designed to help liberal arts students plan their careers. Also, only six of the institutions surveyed had developed programs combining liberal arts studies with career-oriented concentrations or minors. Most of the respondents indicated that their institutions considered career advising a part of the academic advising role of the faculty; most, also, indicated that they did not know to what extent the faculty were actually involved. In addition, only 18% reported any formal activities involving faculty in career advising, and generally, this amounted to the faculty advising of pre-law and pre-med students (Hiley, 1983).

As the statistics reveal, the majority of liberal arts institutions believe that internships, co-op experiences, and general workshops are career preparations enough for liberal arts students. Since these schools feel that they are adequately servicing the needs of liberal arts students, apparently they do not perceive *career confusion* as a legitimate concern.

There is a third factor that contributes to the obscurity which surrounds *career confusion*. Due to the drastic decline in students interested in majoring in the liberal arts, many institutions (liberal arts colleges in particular) are facing tremendous financial pressures. In order to circumvent this problem, many schools have undertaken comprehensive enrollment management plans as a means of increasing retention and recruitment efforts. Although *career confusion* may play a significant role in contributing to the decline in interest in the liberal arts, it is rarely given much notice as a means of alleviating some of the financial burden.

Some Innovative Designs

Although the statistics show that an overwhelming number of institutions do not offer specialized career programming for liberal arts students, there are a few institutions which have recognized the value of such programming. A comprehensive approach to a career development process for liberal arts students has been developed at Montana State University where those involved believe that the most important factor in enhancing placement possibilities for liberal arts students is preplanning. Thus, the intent of the Montana State design is not to build a new career development program, but rather, to extend existing career development and placement services to liberal arts students. Inherent in this plan is an involved and committed liberal arts faculty working productively with potential employers to develop a comprehensive career development program for students.

The Liberal Arts Career Development and Planning Program at Montana State University has four elements which influence the effectiveness of the program:

1) Appointment of a liberal arts career development coordinator, jointly sponsored by the Placement Office and the College of Letters & Science.
2) A liberal arts career internship program for sophomores and juniors.
3) A liberal arts career development advisory committee.
4) A workshop designed to bring faculty and business leaders together. (Weaver & Haviland, 1980)

Montana State University believes that the faculty has a significant influence on students; therefore, having the faculty directly involved with a career planning process is intended to complement the quintessence of a liberal arts education. The importance of this particular program is threefold: It is a practical approach to a difficult and confusing problem; it is implemented in clearly defined stages; it is periodically evaluated and revised.

Another institution which has acknowledged *career confusion* as a real and pressing issue is Bradford College in Massachusetts. Under the presidential leadership of Dr. Arthur Levine, Bradford has taken traditional liberal arts ideals and goals and updated them so they remain practical. The Bradford Plan features general education courses pertaining to organizational structures and the nature of work, internships supplemented with courses on the work environment, and interdisciplinary majors coupled with practical minors (Bradford College, 1984).

The Bradford plan is important because it gets beyond the seemingly endless debate over the value of a liberal arts education, while conveying how the very worth of such an education is applicable to the working world. It is Bradford's

view that a career-related focus is an essential complement to a sound liberal arts curriculum. For this reason Bradford has incorporated this ideal into the college's core requirements.

A third institution which has taken steps in reaching its liberal arts students is The University of South Carolina. The program that South Carolina has implemented is a semester long course examining the career concerns of liberal arts students, as well as exploring the value and pertinence of studying a liberal arts discipline. This course is sponsored by the Career Center, but it is offered within the confines of Carolina's nationally known University 101 freshman seminar program. The idea is to reach students early, preferably during their freshman year, so that the issue of *career confusion* can be addressed as thoroughly as possible. The Career Center hopes that such an initial orientation will prompt students to become active participants in their own career development.

As evidenced by these three institutions, there are a variety of ways to address the concerns of today's liberal arts students. Montana State, for example, examines these concerns within the context of the career planning process, although the faculty do have a significant role. Bradford, conversely, relates theoretical applications to practical experiences within the design of its core curriculum. The University of South Carolina's approach is imaginative because it makes initial contact with liberal arts students through its freshman orientation program. Regardless of their respective means, the central point is that all of these institutions have exemplified a commitment to liberal arts by implementing appropriate programs to enhance the value and worth of a liberal arts education. As the number of liberal arts majors in this country continues to plummet, it is inconceivable that more liberal arts institutions have not taken positive steps in recognizing *career confusion* as an issue that may well be at the heart of the declining interest in the liberal arts. It is not too far-fetched to say that *career confusion* has the potential to be as damaging a problem as any faced by liberal arts institutions in this century. By not addressing the career concerns of today's students in a very tangible and practical way, liberal arts institutions are working contrary to their purported mission - to prepare the student for purposeful living. Those institutions which have implemented programs to enrich the lives of their liberal arts students have concurrently invested in the future of their respective institutions.

Recommendations

After reviewing related literature, three recommendations seem appropriate. Certainly, the most important one is that liberal arts institutions must recognize the need for pertinent career development programs for liberal arts students. Our society is changing so rapidly that those institutions which fail to keep pace will soon become obsolete. How ironic it would be if liberal arts institutions were forced to close their doors because they could not adapt to changes in society. The preparation to function in a variable world has been the very ideal long revered as the hallmark of a liberal arts education.

The second recommendation is for an institution to actualize a practical approach that is individually tailored. To implement this approach, institutions need to assess their respective resources, needs, and capabilities. Furthermore, a clearly defined program should be established which can be evaluated in measurable terms. Once programs are established, it is imperative that periodical evaluations and adaptations be administered.

Although many schools do need to develop specific programs to address this problem, other institutions may discover that they need only to add more of a focus to existing programs. Cooperative Education, for example, is an excellent means for relating work and education for students who have developed tentative career goals. The key, however, is getting to these students early enough so that they can begin assessing their interests, skills, and values before testing career choices.

Involving liberal arts students in practical work experiences is particularly valuable since liberal arts is an academic discipline which does not illuminate a direct career path. By participating in a work experience, liberal arts students not only have a chance to explore themselves, but also, they can explore an arena that they know very little about — the business world. Moreover, institutions can aid in this discovery process by providing forums for liberal arts students to discuss their work experiences with one another. This sharing will help students see the various opportunities that are available to liberal arts majors, and hopefully, alleviate some of the anxiety they may be feeling about entering the job market.

The third and final recommendation is to involve the liberal arts faculty in the career planning process. Even though Montana State University, Bradford College, and the University of South Carolina all have very different approaches to career planning for liberal arts students, they all agree on the importance of involving the faculty in the process. For example, creating an advisory board is an excellent means of involving the faculty in the career development of their students. Faculty members have a tremendous influence over students, and their support and knowledge is critical in providing an effective career development plan. It is imperative that faculty members see this increased attention on career planning as a means of helping students develop their abilities more fully, rather than as a means for diluting the essence of a liberal arts education. Cooperation between the faculty and the career services personnel will help liberal arts institutions live up to their mission of preparing students for purposeful living.

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Gender-balancing the Curriculum

Sue V. Rosser

Debates of curriculum committees on many campuses, mandates for general education requirements, and articles in education journals and newspapers (McMillen, 1987) are all likely to focus these days on gender-balancing the curriculum. This relatively new focus raises questions in the minds of those not directly involved with the issues. The aim of this article is to provide a basic overview of the subject by answering a number of specific questions — the what, why, where, when, who, and how — of gender-balancing the curriculum.

What Does Gender-balancing the Curriculum Mean?

To speak of balancing implies that something is out of balance. In this case, the term *gender-balancing* suggests that the curriculum has been unbalanced because it has been based exclusively or primarily on male models, experiences, or achievements.

Gender-balancing the curriculum, curriculum transformation, mainstreaming, and integrating the new scholarship on women are phrases used interchangeably to refer to the process of correcting the imbalance. This process begins with learning about the large volume of new information on women's roles, achievements, and experiences produced due to research and scholarship efforts during the past two decades in most of the traditional disciplines within the academy. During the process faculty members and scholars consider the traditional approaches and information that they have been teaching and using in research in light of this new information about women. Ultimately, the curricular offerings will reflect the faculty members' rethinking the course content, disciplinary paradigms, and methodological approaches to incorporate women, thereby righting the imbalance.

Why is Gender-balancing the Curriculum Necessary?

Information regarding the history, roles, experiences, and accomplishments of women has traditionally been absent from the curriculum for a variety of reasons. Historically, women were not permitted to enroll in institutions of higher education; the first coeducational colleges and universities emerged in the United States in 1833, barely over 150 years ago (Solomon, 1985). Until recently, the women's arena was seen as confined to the private sphere, while the men's arena was the public sphere. The public/private dichotomy excluded women from the curriculum in two ways: First, women were not seen as individuals who needed access to education that would prepare them for public work since theirs was the private domain. Second, information about women remained in the private sphere and was not included in the public realm of educational curricula.

During the past two decades changes in the roles of women in institutions of higher education and in society have reversed these historic trends. In the United States, women now comprise the majority of students in institutions of higher education (CIRP, 1986). For example, at the University of South Carolina the percentage of female students increased from 35% to 54% between 1971 and 1986 (System Office of Institutional Research, 1971 and 1986). Women have also begun to work outside the home in unprecedented numbers so that 51% of all professionals are now women (Hirsch, 1987). Simultaneously, the new scholarship on women has produced extensive information about the roles, accomplishments, and experiences of women. Increased numbers of women in college and in the work force, the changing role of women in society, and the explosion of new knowledge demand that the male bias in the curriculum be balanced.

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Where is Gender-balancing Occurring?

Beginning in 1980, several projects funded by the federal government and private foundations for integrating the new scholarship on women were initiated at a variety of four year colleges and universities in different regions throughout the country. By 1984, 60 curriculum integration projects had been undertaken (Association of American Colleges, 1984) in institutions ranging from former men's colleges (Yale and Dartmouth) to women's colleges (Smith and Stephens), as well as large state universities (Kansas State and Indiana University - Bloomington), medium-sized state institutions (Mankato State and Old Dominion), and small liberal arts colleges (Guilford and Claremont Colleges). More recently, in addition to curriculum transformation efforts at over 100 institutions, integration efforts have moved to the state-wide level. The New Jersey Department of Higher Education has given $362,500 to support the endeavor at the state's 56 public and private colleges for the "inaugural years of integrating the scholarship on women" (McMillen, 1987).

When Should Gender-balancing the Curriculum Take Place?

With so many colleges and universities undertaking projects to integrate the new scholarship on women into their curricula, other institutions that try to keep in step with trends in higher education on the national level should begin integration immediately. Several institutions have recently undertaken gender-balancing initiatives to stay one step ahead of guidelines and criteria which they think may be imposed upon institutions lacking such initiatives by commissions of higher education and accrediting associations.

Individual institutions often elect to begin mainstreaming the information on women during a period of general curriculum reform such as re-evaluation of the general education requirements or core curriculum (Rosser, 1986). At the time of curriculum reform, faculty are considering the question of what constitutes the common general knowledge base which students should have to be well prepared for the future. Information derived from the new scholarship on women is clearly one component of the knowledge that students need to have.

During a period of curriculum reform, faculty members evaluate their courses in terms of the issues being discussed and contemplate changes that they might make in content and approaches. Throughout this period of evaluation faculty are often open to and actively searching for new ideas and paradigms. Integrating the new scholarship on women is facilitated at a time when other changes in syllabi are under consideration.

Who Can Aid Faculty in their Efforts to Gender-balance the Curriculum?

With curriculum integration projects going on at so many institutions throughout the country, there are obviously many individuals with experience in directing and participating in such projects who can provide valuable insights into successful strategies. The Wellesley Center for Research on Women maintains a directory (1983) of individuals who can provide consultation for gender-balancing the curriculum.

However, the main resource for both faculty expertise and materials should be the women's studies program at the institution. The new scholarship on women was produced primarily by scholars doing research in women's studies. Faculty in women's studies teach about women and develop courses that use gender as a category of analysis. An effort to gender-balance the curriculum which is undertaken at an institution which does not have a women's studies program is doomed to failure at worst or a superficial solution at best because the resources for information and expertise emerge from women's studies. Since the latest *National Women's Studies Association Directory* reports programs at more than 500 institutions (Stafford, 1986) and since more than 30,000 women's studies courses had been developed by the late 1970's (Howe, 1984), few colleges or universities are likely to need to try to gender-balance their curriculum without the guidance of a women's studies program.

How does Gender-balancing the Curriculum Occur?

Several models have been developed by individuals who have studied the institutions with projects for gender-balancing the curriculum (McIntosh, 1984; Schuster and Van Dyne, 1985; Tetreault, 1985). All the models reflect the idea that integrating information about women into the curriculum is a process that occurs in phases. The first phase constitutes the situation in which women are absent from the curriculum; the final phase is the gender-balanced curriculum. The model developed by Peggy McIntosh (1984) of the Wellesley Center for Research on Women will be elaborated and expanded here to illustrate the process of gender-balancing the curriculum, using examples from five disciplines.

Phase I: The Womanless Curriculum

This is the traditional curricular approach in which the absence of women is not noted. In *history* it provides a very traditional approach to the discipline, which is exclusive in that only great events and men in history are deemed worthy of consideration (i.e., Presidents and battles are emphasized). Art history courses recently taught on many campuses emphasize this phase. The most widely used art history text by Janson, a very thick volume, included no women artists until the 1986 version (McNamee and Fix, 1986). *English* courses at this stage include no, or very few, women authors. Much psychological research and many psychology courses are also at this stage. For example, many theories of human development are really based on male development. Levinson's model of adult devel-

opment (1974), Erikson's model (1963), and of course Freud's work, all assumed a male norm. In most biology and other science courses, gender is not even considered to be an issue, since science is objective. However, many experiments are run on male animal subjects only and certain subjects of particular interest to women such as childbirth and other women's health concerns have received less funding for research. Responding to this problem the National Institute of Health issued new guidelines in December, 1986, (National News & Development, 1986) suggesting that proposals should include both male and female experimental subjects and include topics of interest to women.

Phase II: Women as an add-on to the curriculum

Heroines, exceptional women or an elite few who are seen to have been of benefit to culture as defined by the traditional standards of the discipline are included in the study. History courses taught in this phase might include women such as Joan of Arc, Abigail Adams, or Betsy Ross. An art history course in Phase II might include a few slides of work by Berthe Morisot or Mary Cassatt or a handout about them used with the Janson text. The traditional Norton anthology in English has followed this phase. The first edition included only two women, Jane Austen and Emily Dickinson. Now in its fifth edition, the Norton Anthology includes twenty-eight female authors. In psychology, the work of Melanie Klein, Karen Horney, or Anna Freud might be characterized as being at this stage. The eight women who have won the Nobel Prize in medicine or science would certainly be categorized here. Phase II is characterized by adding women without changing the syllabus or framework of the course.

Phase III: Women as a Problem, Anomaly, or Absence from the Curriculum

Women are studied in this phase as victims, as deprived or defective variants of men, or as protestors, with issues. Categories of historical analysis still are derived from those who had the most power. At this phase, historians may begin to ask why there have been no women presidents.

People considering art history at this phase begin to ask questions like why aren't there more women artists and what is art anyway? In English, the question becomes why aren't there any female Shakespeares? In psychology the question becomes why women's development doesn't fit the models of human development. This soon leads to the question of what is wrong with the models that they don't fit the development of half of the people in the world. Many biologists at this stage point out some of the flaws in experimental design in some of the studies which have supposedly proven superior mathematical ability in males or the circularity of logic involved in some sociobiology research in which human language and frameworks are used to describe certain animal behaviors such as aggression which is then used to prove that certain human behavior is biologically determined, since it has also been found in animals.

Phase IV: Women as the focus for studies

In this phase the categories for analysis shift and become racially inclusive, multifaceted, and filled with variety; they demonstrate and validate plural versions of reality. Women's studies can now become the center of research and teaching.

This phase takes account of the fact that since women have had half of the world's lived experienced, we need to ask what that experience has been and to consider it as half of history. This causes faculty to use all kinds of evidence and source materials which academic people are not in the habit of using. People doing art history research at this phase may begin to look at certain types of crafts, quilts, and stitchery work (much of which has traditionally been work done by women) as art. In English, people look at what women have written — diaries, letters, novels. They look at women's writing for what it is and examine how it differs from that of men. Psychologists such as Carol Gilligan have begun to explore female models of development which emphasize different methods of ethical and moral decision-making practiced by girls and women.

In biology the work of Barbara McClintock may serve as an example of this stage of research. Barbara McClintock is an achieving scientist who is not a feminist. However, in her approach towards studying maize, she indicates a shortening of the distance between the observer and the object being studied and a consideration of the complex interaction between the organism and its environment. Her statement upon receiving the Nobel Prize was that "it might seem unfair to reward a person for having so much pleasure over the years, asking the maize plant to solve specific problems and then watching its responses" (Keller , 1984). This statement suggests a closer, more intimate relationship with the subject of her research than typically is expressed by the male *objective* scientist. One does not normally associate words such as "a feeling for the organism" (Keller, 1984) with the rational, masculine approach to science. McClintock also did not accept the predominant hierarchical theory of genetic DNA as the Master Molecule that controls gene action but focused on the interaction between the organism and its environment as the locus of control.

Phase V: The Curriculum Redefined and Reconstructed to Include Us All

This is the ultimate goal of the gender-balanced curriculum. Although this curriculum will be a long time in the making, it will help students to sense that women are both part of and alien to the dominant culture. It will create more useable and inclusive constructs which validate a wider sample of life.

Obviously, we have not yet reached Phase V in our work. However, it is the goal towards which we are all working. In this final phase women are not separated out but are present in all

disciplines; the idea is not to replace the womanless curriculum with the manless curriculum. The ideal is to have the knowledge about women present in all introductory and advanced courses in the curriculum. Only when the curriculum reflects the diversity of experiences, roles, and achievements present in our population will it begin to prepare students for the diversity in the world. Gender-balancing the curriculum is one important step towards increasing that diversity.

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Student Involvement and Its Relationship to Retention and Grade Point Averages: A Model for Assessment

Harry B. Shucker

Statement of the Problem

As higher education moves toward the 1990s, there is an increasing concern that the number of traditional age students (18-21 years old) is declining and that enrollments will suffer in the future. Between 1985 and the early 1990s, the 18 year old student pool is predicted to decrease by 13% (O'Keefe, 1985). Already, some small private colleges have either closed their doors or have been absorbed by larger, private, or state-supported institutions. In an effort to alleviate the effects of a declining student cohort, colleges and universities are now seeking ways to reduce attrition rates of those students presently in attendance (Kemerer, Baldridge, & Green, 1982).

High attrition rates can have a considerable impact upon educational institutions. Commitments based on projected enrollments are made by schools in terms of financial expenditures, faculty time, student support services, and campus facility usage. The net loss to the institution due to attrition is overwhelming when coupled with early student withdrawal. The morale of both faculty and students is deeply affected. Scully (1980) noted that an unacceptable rate of attrition in conjunction with a tenuous new student enrollment can affect the educational quality of an institution, its financial future, and even its survival.

Recent studies of students leaving their initial school of enrollment or higher education reveal attrition rates from 40% to 60% depending on the particular study's definition of attrition and whether the students were followed through one, two, three, four, or five years. Green (1983) found that nearly 50% of all students entering four-year institutions never graduated from their original place of enrollment and that approximately 30% never graduated from any college. Another review of attrition studies noted that over the past 50 years only 40% of those who graduated during a four- or five-year period did so from their initial school of entrance (Lenning, Sauer, & Beal, 1980). In a national study by Beal and Noel (1980) to examine retention rates at different types of schools, the average graduation rates after five years from entrance varied from 46% at four-year public institutions to 65% at four-year private, selective institutions and 77% at private, highly selective institutions.

Although Furman University has a regional reputation as a fine academic institution and its enrollment is stable, there is concern regarding the percentage of students who graduate. In order to increase the percentage of those who graduate, freshman retention must be increased. One of the immediate concerns regarding freshman attrition at Furman is the percentage of students who withdraw for voluntary reasons at the end of their first year. Over a three-year period (1982-83, 1983-84, 1984-85), the percentage of freshmen voluntarily not returning for the sophomore year has ranged from 7.9 to 10.1. During exit interviews with these students, the reasons given for leaving were many and varied. In order to understand one facet of the dynamics related to freshman attrition and retention, it is important to know whether involvement detracts from student satisfaction and contributes to attrition.

Based on the above concerns, there are a number of questions that need to be answered. The most important being to determine whether there is a difference in the persistence rates between those freshmen who participated in the various extracurricular activities and those who did not. Any differences in retention rates would then be examined through grouping the freshmen by sex, race, religious affiliation, and living arrangements. A third facet of the study examines whether participation in any particular activity was a predictor of freshman persistence. Relationships between predicted or earned grade point averages and participation were also researched.

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Methodology

Furman University is a four-year, coeducational, church-related college founded by the South Carolina Baptists in 1826 and located in Greenville, South Carolina. Its academic program is committed to the liberal arts tradition as the best preparation students can have for rewarding, meaningful lives. At the beginning of the 1985 fall term, Furman enrolled 2,385 undergraduate students from 36 states and six foreign countries.

The population of new entering freshmen in the fall term of 1985 totaled 600 and their mean combined score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test was 1099. To establish the identity of those first-year students who voluntarily withdrew at the end of the 1985-86 spring term, a complete roster of the entering 1985 fall term freshmen was obtained from the Office of Institutional Planning and Research. The roster was cross-checked against data provided by the Office of the University Registrar. Each fall, the Registrar's Office provides withdrawal information regarding students who were enrolled in September of the previous year but did not return to Furman the following September.

Of the total population of 600 new freshmen that entered Furman in fall of 1985, the group used in the study consisted of 567 students. The other 33 freshmen were eliminated from consideration because they either withdrew during the academic year, were academically suspended, or no predicted grade point average had been computed for them because the Admissions Office did not have either their high school class rank or Scholastic Aptitude Test scores. Also, freshmen who had earned any college transfer credits were not included. Only those students who persisted as sophomores or who voluntarily withdrew at the end of their first academic year comprised the research group of the 1985 freshman class. Of the remaining 567, 530 freshmen were found to have continued their enrollment as sophomores while 37 voluntarily withdrew at the end of their first year. After selecting the group, the 567 freshmen were categorized as persisters or non-persisters. They were further separated into subgroups by sex, race, religious affiliation, and living arrangements which are the same subgroups that were cited in Astin's (1977) research. Table 1 shows the number and percentage of the freshmen as grouped by sex, race, religious affiliation, and living arrangements.

The numbers of participants in the specific extracurricular activities examined were obtained from institutional records. The names of students participating in intercollegiate athletics were furnished through the office of the Director of Athletics.

Three appropriate methods (Hopkins & Glass, 1978), utilizing a set of computer software programs (Nocks & Einstein, 1986), were employed to analyze the data. The *t*-test was used to determine whether a significant difference in involvement between persisters and non-persisters existed. A chi-square was computed to establish whether one activity was predictive of persistence as a sophomore. The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to analyze the degree of relationship between involvement and grade point averages, predicted and earned. The .05 level of significance was used in all statistical tests.

Table 1

Number and Percentage of Students by Categories Who Persisted or Did Not Persist

	Sample	Persisters		Non-Persisters	
Group	N	N	%	N	%
Freshmen	567	530	(93)	37	(7)
Men	273	255	(93)	18	(7)
Women	294	275	(94)	19	(6)
Caucasians	548	511	(93)	37	(7)
Blacks	19	19	(100)	0	(0)
Baptists	222	212	(95)	10	(5)
Non-Baptists	345	318	(92)	27	(8)
Residents	542	509	(94)	33	(6)
Commuters	25	21	(84)	4	(16)

Results and Conclusions

This study was designed to determine whether involvement by 1985 Furman freshmen in certain aspects of the total educational experience (intercollegiate athletics, campus employment, fraternities/sororities, intramurals, student government) had a relationship to persistence as sophomores, predicted grade point averages, and earned grade point averages. As there is a need to reduce voluntary attrition rates and improve graduation rates, the purpose of the study was to evaluate whether freshman participation in extracurricular activities has a positive relationship to college grades and retention.

Persistence and Involvement

The results of this study showed that there were significant differences in the involvement of freshmen in extracurricular activities. Those who participated had higher persistence rates into the sophomore year than those who did not participate (see Table 2). In addition, there were higher persistence rates for those who participated when the freshmen were grouped by sex, race, and religious affiliation. When the freshmen were grouped by living arrangements, residents who participated had higher persistence rates but commuters who participated did not.

Table 2

Comparison of Participation or Non-Participation and Persistence Rates

Group	Total Sample N	Persisters N %	Non-Persisters N %
	567	530 (93)	37 (7)
Participants	468	441 (94)	27 (6)
Non-Participants	99	89 (90)	10 (10)

In examining each specific activity, participants in campus employment, intramurals, fraternities/sororities, and student government had higher persistence rates than those who did not participate in the activity. Only those who participated in athletics had a lower persistence rate than those who did not participate in athletics. However, only participation in campus employment approached statistical significance as a predictor of persistence (see Table 3).

Table 3

Comparison of Persisters and Non-Persisters by Activity Involvement

Activity	n[a]	Retention Rate % Participants	Non-Participants	X	$\hat{p}$
Athletics	78	92	94	.20	.653
Campus Emp.	173	97	92	3.82	.051
Frat./Sor.	105	94	93	.14	.709
Intramurals	381	95	91	3.10	.078
Student Gov.	4	100	93	.28	.596

[a] Number of group (567) who participated.

Predicted Grade Point Averages and Involvement

The results of this study found slight but significant negative correlations between predicted grade point averages and involvement for the total group (r = -.11), persisters (r = -.11), and certain categories within their subgroups. There were larger negative correlations for non-persisters (r = -.29) and non-persister Caucasians (r = -.29) which were significant. Thus, the variables were inversely related and those with lower predicted grade point averages were more involved than those with higher predicted grade point averages. The difference between lower predicted grade point averages and levels of involvement was greater for non-persisters than for the total group or for the persisters.

Earned Grade Point Averages and Involvement

The results of this study found slight but significant negative correlations between earned grade point averages and involvement for the total group (r = -.10), persisters (r = -.09), and certain categories within their subgroups. There were larger negative correlations for non-persisters (r = -.38) and for certain categories within the group that were significant. Therefore, these variables were inversely related and those with lower earned grade point averages were more involved than those with higher earned grade point averages. The difference between lower earned grade point averages and levels of involvement was greater for non-persisters than for the total group or for the persisters.

Educational Significance

As institutions seek ways in which to contend with the predicted decline in numbers of the traditional age student, many of their resources are now being focused on retaining students currently enrolled. If retention rates can be increased, then the stress on recruiting new students will be lessened, enrollments will stabilize, financial expenditures can be used to improve educational quality, and most institutions will survive. The results of this study may add more information on those factors which affect retention.

In doing so, the results of this study may be of importance to those college administrators who are responsible for policy development regarding enrollment management. Astin (1984) stated that the effectiveness of any educational policy is directly related to its capacity to increase student involvement and persistence in higher education. Therefore, other institutions may also want to examine these results very carefully. Although the outcomes should not be generalized for other schools because each educational environment is unique, the information contained in the study may be useful in developing future policies and procedures regarding retention.

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The Evolution Of A Contractual Right For The American College Student

Jon C. Rogers

Editors' Note: Jon Rogers' dissertation, abstracted below, was selected as the Dissertation of the Year by the Southern Association of College Student Affairs.

Introduction

The appearance of the consumer protection movement on college campuses has influenced judges to adopt a contractual perspective in ruling on numerous student-institutional controversies. Educational and legal commentators have observed that the legal status of students in postsecondary institutions is evolving, and have identified the contract theory as a sustaining source of rights for students. Courts have interpreted college bulletins, program guides and institutional brochures as creating mutual rights, obligations and duties among contracting parties. In addition, oral representations by faculty advisors, deans and chairpersons have been utilized by students as a basis for initiating breach of contract suits.

This article will report on the results of legal research that identified the contractual relationship between college students and their institutions. The primary source of data for this research was one hundred and forty court cases in which the primary litigants were college students, prospective students and institutions of higher education. This research was designed to broaden the practical understanding of the contractual theory of students' rights for policymakers, faculty and administrators in postsecondary education.

Statement of the Problem

The first purpose of this study was to identify and analyze the legal status of the American college student by focusing on the evolution of the student-institution relationship from the colonial period to the twentieth century. The goal of this research was to clarify the current legal relationship between college students and their educational institutions. The second purpose of the study was to survey and synthesize court decisions that address the student-institution contractual relationship. The goal of this examination was to analyze the legal propositions and judicial trends emanating from contract theory litigation in order to extrapolate the direction and impact of these court decisions on students' legal rights.

Importance of the Study

Considerable controversy remains in regard to the exact nature of the legal relationship between college students and their educational institutions. Periodic assessment of this relationship has been emphasized by several educational and legal authorities. There is a need to continue to pursue information concerning the volume, nature and trends of litigation which will illustrate patterns of law. It is believed that identified patterns of law enable college and university administrators to make sound and logical decisions based on relevant evidence and reason which will reduce error in judgment.

College administrators, professors and trustees are finding that they must be aware of, and responsive to, the decisional law of the courts. Decisions that affect the rights of students, or obligate the institution, should not be made without considering legal consequences and parameters. The implementation of contractual obligations has caused considerable consternation among educators and legal scholars alike, particularly as legally enforceable rights have increasingly been recognized and summoned into use by college students, and as educational issues appear with increasing regularity in the courtroom.

The legal status of the American college student is subject to reinterpretation and change over time. The focused study of the student-institutional legal relationship can advance knowledge and enhance understanding of this legal phenomenon. Legal

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propositions gleaned from this research can guide institutions in developing and implementing policies regarding the rights and obligations of college students and their institutions.

Conceptual/Theoretical Framework

This research was framed by a legal-historical philosophy that identified the dynamic quality of the American legal system and presented a *doctrine of precedent* that espoused legal reasoning by example. In American jurisprudence, cases are shaped by an interpretation of the facts in light of a reexamination of the law. Historically, judges have tried to view the law through the eyes of their predecessors. Courts search for similarities with existing case law to develop a pattern of reasoning based on what new facts will be related to existing law. Rules change from case to case and are remade with each case.

As new patterns of behavior emerge, whether it be in an entire society or in a subsystem such as a college campus, in order to maintain and facilitate order, law must define new and reciprocal rights and responsibilities for all involved. Student-institution litigation supports the view that legal concepts are created out of particular instances that initiate the continuous realignment of judicial decisions. A court's holding may either retard or advance the development of the law on any issue. In the balancing process of the judiciary, there exists a continual testing and sorting of conditions and fairness; thus the law evolves through incremental steps.

Research Methodology

Through a review of court decisions, law journals and periodicals, and educational books and periodicals, the investigator traced the acquisition of legal rights for college students from the colonial period that was framed by the *in loco parentis* doctrine to the twentieth century that has been characterized by consumer protection initiatives.

In the second phase of the research, reported judicial decisions from state and federal courts were identified in which college students sued their educational institutions alleging a breach of a contractual right. The analysis of case law that addresses the student-institution contractual relationship focused on judicial decisions during the period 1970-1985. The 26th Amendment to the United States Constitution passed by Congress in 1971 provided the benchmark for this research as the amendment lowered the age of majority to age 18 and elevated the student's right to enter contractual agreements.

The following categories of court cases were identified and analyzed during the research: tuition, fees and scholarships; student discipline; academic programs; and academic standards. Judicial holdings in each of these categories were summarized to identify major points of law and trends arising from adjudication. From this analysis and subsequent synthesis of court decisions, legal propositions were developed into administrative guidelines according to their implications for institutional policy and practice.

Student Rights: An Evolutionary Process

During the developmental period of American higher education, attendance at a college or university was viewed as a privilege that could be summarily denied or revoked by the institution. Postsecondary institutions maintained a broad exercise of discretion in all of their affairs. Feeling ill-equipped to evaluate academic decisions, courts were extremely reluctant to intervene in disputes that occurred between students and academic officials, and when involved, would affirm the discretionary authority of the institution.

In order to justify and maintain their traditional role of non-intervention in academic affairs, courts adopted a variety of theories to categorize the legal status of students and to uphold the authority of the institution. Through the middle of the twentieth century, courts in a full panoply of decisions, found early refuge in the doctrine of *in loco parentis* and continuing reliance on a doctrine of abstention. These responses allowed institutions to maintain complete control over the affairs of their students.

Responding to the needs of an increasingly expansive clientele, institutions broadened their curriculum and services. Concurrently, courts began to recognize that the denial or revocation of an opportunity for higher education was severe and consequential. Buttressed by landmark decisions of *Brown v. Board of Education*, (1954), and *Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education* (1961), the judiciary accepted and reinforced the view that students in good standing possessed a right to public postsecondary education.

The early enrollment contracts of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were primarily business agreements between parents and the institution that provided educational services for specified tuition and fees. The education contract was based on the traditional contractual relationship where two parties agree to terms providing mutual benefits and obligations. These early contracts, however, were designed to allow educational institutions to exercise total authority over the affairs of their students. Colleges relied on written provisions inserted in catalogs or application forms in which they reserved the right to alter rules and regulations and to dismiss a student at any time for any reason that the college identified. The agreements were, in reality, contracts of adhesions as there were no negotiations of terms and the students had to accept all conditions as determined by the institution.

Early case law reinforced the complete discretionary authority of institutions to determine, alter and apply its academic, disciplinary and procedural standards. Barring extraordinarily arbitrary or capricious actions by institutions, courts upheld institutional perogatives into the middle of the twentieth century.

The decade of the 1960s was clearly the most active era for

the pursuit and attainment of legally enforceable rights for students. Students challenged academic decisions and courts reviewed campus disputes on their substantive merits and offered relief from unwarranted institutional actions. There was an incremental move by courts to require greater balance of rights and responsibilities in the student-institution relationship. The enactment of the 26th Amendment in 1971 led to the acceptance of college students as adult citizens with corresponding rights and responsibilities. Concurrently, students began to seek legal rights from a consumer perspective and began to challenge institutions to provide quality educational services and promised outcomes in exchange for the student's monetary investment of tuition and fees.

Contract theory was rejuvenated as the student-institution relationship became increasingly grounded on the development of mutual obligations and reciprocity between both parties, with focused emphasis on institutional accountability. The official publications of the institution continue to provide the principal source of terms defining the education contract. Additionally, students have asserted the existence of an implied contract based on oral representations made by designated authorities of the institution. Breach of contract claims have become a means for students to seek protection from arbitrary or unfair institutional decisions or practices. While courts continue to follow the traditional doctrine of judicial abstention in disputes over academic standards, contract claims have proven successful in specific disputes over tuition and fees payments, disciplinary procedures and program discontinuance.

The Education Contract: Case Law

Tuition, Fees, Scholarships

Traditional contract law is often applied in tuition, fees and scholarship suits. Thirty-three cases were analyzed that address these contract issues. The case law reveals that a contractual agreement between a student and an educational institution arises upon payment of an enrollment deposit, receipt of tuition and fee charges, tuition loan agreements, and the offer and acceptance of scholarship terms. These contracts have been based upon both written and oral elements, particularly the institution's catalog, bulletin and other official publications.

Courts have sustained institutional policies of non-refundability of deposits or advance payments of tuition if the policies were expressed in catalogs, bulletins or registration forms. See *Drucker v. New York University* (1969). While students seeking tuition refunds due to minor alterations in their education contract have been unsuccessful, early cases have provided a foundation upon which students initiated legal action against their institutions for failing to fulfill expressed or implied obligations for educational services. The *Paynter* (1971) court offered an important judicial interpretation of the student-institution contractual relationship when it stated:

> While in a strict sense, a student contracts with a college or university for a number of courses to be given during the academic year... The circumstances of the relationship permit the implication that the professor or the college may make minor changes in this regard. The insubstantial change in the schedule of classes does not permit a recovery of tuition (p. 894).

Early cases, particularly *Silver v. Queens College* (1970), additionally established the need for disclaimer statements in official representations of the institution that would allow them to adjust their tuition and fee charges and justify their alteration. By relying on catalog disclaimer statements and accepting institutional financial justifications, courts have upheld the reasonableness of substantial fee increases. See *Auser v. Cornell University* (1972); *Basch v. George Washington University* (1977); and *Eisele v. Ayers* (1978).

Courts will uphold student challenges, however, where they can identify a disparate student-institution agreement in which the student is obligated to arbitrary, unreasonable, or unequal financial requirements or in which the institution fails to follow its expressed policies and fee schedule. See *Educational Beneficial Inc. v. Reynolds* (1971); *Stad v. Grace Downs Model and Air Career School* (1971); and *King v. American Academy of Performing Arts* (1980).

Case law reveals that scholarship disputes between students and their educational institutions, both athletic and academic, have been resolved by the courts using strict contract law principles. Students have the burden of proof to identify breach of contractual rights and nonperformance of institutional obligations, and the judiciary, barring unfair or deceptive practices, has accepted the authority of the institution in setting these terms. See *Taylor v. Wake Forest University* (1972); and *Chism v. University of Kansas College of Health Sciences and Hospital* (1985).

Student Discipline

Student petitions for constitutional guarantees in campus affairs, set in motion by *Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education* (1961), have expanded in the last two decades into a continuous current of campus conduct litigation in the postsecondary area. While the *Dixon* court determined the minimum due process that must be accorded students facing suspension or dismissal for misconduct, there continues to be considerable variance as to how much due process is legally required.

An analysis of twenty-four cases reveals that student suits that have sought relief from severe disciplinary procedures and penalties based on contract theory have been primarily unsuccessful. In the early cases, contract theory was employed by institutions to uphold their own disciplinary rules and regulations. Campus officials performed their administrative and

academic roles free from significant judicial interference. Current litigation includes students that are alleging breach of contract to ensure a breadth of specific consumer rights in their agreements with their institutions. The right of colleges and universities to promulgate reasonable regulations and procedures for the management of their enterprise, however, continues to be recognized and reinforced by the judiciary.

When institutional policies and procedures on student conduct are codified as part of a catalog or other official publication, they become terms of the student-institution contract. From a contractual perspective, a number of courts have examined institutional regulations and procedures to determine if they were implemented in good faith and exhibited procedural fairness. When viewed as an implied contract, courts have utilized the broad authority established in catalog provisions to sustain institutional rulings and procedures if they were performed reasonably. Judgments have been awarded to students when their procedural due process rights were denied, or when the institution failed to follow its established procedures.

In modern litigation of student misconduct disputes, the judiciary has applied and accepted a standard of reasonableness. In *Pride v. Howard University* (1978), the court of appeals urged that the student-institution contract should be interpreted "as would a reasonable person in the position of the parties" (p. 34). The Delaware superior court in *Swanson v. Wesley College* (1979) recommended that "the standard of basic procedural fairness be used to measure the student disciplinary proceedings" (p. 403), and identified *reasonableness* as the key to the standard. The U.S. Court of Appeals, in *Cloud v. Trustees of Boston University* (1983), reapplied the standard of reasonable expectation - what meaning the party making the manifestation, the university, should reasonably expect the other party to give it (p. 724). The court examined the disciplinary hearing of the plaintiff to ensure that it was conducted with basic fairness (p. 725).

In *Coveney v. President and Trustees of College of Holy Cross* (1983), the Massachusetts Supreme Court, while recognizing the broad discretion of institutions to determine appropriate sanctions for violations of policies, held that "if school officials act in good faith and on reasonable grounds, their decision to suspend or expel a student will not be subject to successful challenge in the courts" (p. 139). When the court determined that the judicial proceedings were conducted fairly, it ruled that the expulsion was neither arbitrary nor capricious.

The standard of reasonableness remains an important barometer for courts to review student disciplinary cases and an appropriate judicial tool to balance rights and obligations in student-institution contractual relationships.

Academic Programs

Fourteen cases were analyzed that address the quality and continuance of academic programs. The determination of educational quality has been a traditional academic preogative and the judiciary has remained reluctant to intervene in such judgments. In addition, in contract suits that have addressed the expected quality of an educational experience, courts have found it arduous to interpret largely unmeasureable elements and to determine a breach of contract. In such cases, institutional justifications have been upheld.

In *Lownthal v. Vanderbilt* (1977), however, the court found a significant deterioration of an academic program, identified the breach of a specific institutional commitment, and awarded the students a refund of their tuition. Thus, although courts have been willing to review student complaints that address program quality or status, there remains a substantial burden of proof on the students to show academic abuse and liability through breach of contract.

In cases where an academic program has been discontinued, students have prevailed by proving that they were substantially harmed by the decision of the institution. Through principles of contract law, courts have accepted the expectation of students that, if they pay their fees and complete the academic requirements, they are entitled to receive a degree. Courts have determined that the institution's failure to allow students to complete their academic program has violated the contract agreement between the students and their institutions. Such a decision can result in institutional liability for compensatory damages where students prove and courts recognize that an injury was involved.

In the modern era of the student-institution contractual relationship, the focus of the judiciary has been on the balancing of student expectations and institutional obligations for educational services.

Academic Standards

Fifty cases were analyzed that involve controversies over academic standards. The cases were categorized according to the following phases of the relationship: admissions, grades, and degrees. Judges have held that educational institutions clearly maintain the authority to establish standards for passing courses and determine the standards for successful completion of academic programs and degree requirements. If a student fails to meet the academic requirements, he or she can be dismissed. An exception to the doctrine of judicial abstention occurs when the judiciary finds an academic decision that is made arbitrarily, capriciously, or in bad faith, or determines that an institution has failed to substantially comply with its own policies or procedures. Courts may review the actions of an institution concerning admissions, grades, and degrees, to determine if they are fair and reasonable, and will require specific institutional accountability for arbitrary or unfair academic decisions.

Following a succession of court decisions, notably *Horowitz* (1978), that have severely restricted the constitutional grounds for judicial review of academic decision-making, contract law principles have been utilized by students seeking

between the student and the institution is drawn from written documents of the school as well as unwritten policies and agreements that are considered implied terms of a contract.

Most educational institutions provide explicit statements in their official publications of the requirements for admission, academic continuance, and for obtaining a degree. Certain schools, however, rely on general expectations of satisfactory performance. Courts have held that, upon acceptance for admission, a student establishes an implied contract with the institution that the student will be able to earn a degree upon completion of the expressed academic requirements of the institution. Case law reveals that the catalog statements that expressly identify reasonable academic standards for promotion or graduation will provide justification for a decision to dismiss a student with academic deficiencies. Courts clearly have allowed broad discretion to educational institutions in the exercise of educational authority, particularly if a fair administrative review process is available to students on campus.

Students who are induced to enroll in a particular academic program by written or oral representations, however, may sue the institution to gain compliance based on their reliance on specific program requirements, expectations and outcomes. Student suits have been successful when the court has found an abuse of discretion by the institution, as in the cases of discriminatory grading practices or an arbitrary evaluation of a student's performance. See *DeMarco v. University of Health Sciences/ Chicago Medical School* (1976).

As institutions strive to maintain standards of scholarship, the judiciary in rejecting commercial contract doctrine will recognize the relative bargaining position of the parties and appears willing to protect students from unnecessarily vague or unconscionably sweeping contract provisions governing academic policies and standards.

Conclusions

The education contract has evolved from a written enrollment agreement to a contract for academic programs and educational services between the institution and the adult student-as-consumer. The tenor of modern times has compelled institutions to raise their consciousness toward student needs and student expectations. Students now demand greater accountability for institutional services, and actively challenge deviations from promised outcomes. As educational consumers, students contend that they are entitled to rely upon contractual relations with institutions from application to graduation.

Case law analysis substantiated the following key conclusions:

• In modern higher education litigation, courts have interpreted contractual terms with considerable flexibility and have generally avoided the interpretation and enforcement of rigid commercial contract principles. Courts have allowed considerable latitude and discretion to institutions in interpreting their own regulations and procedures.

• Contractual terms of the student-institution relationship are most often implied from the written representations of the institution. Courts have held that express, written statements become binding on the institution when a student has reasonably relied upon those representations.

• Courts have held that oral representations made by a campus official who has apparent or delegated authority concerning programs, policies or procedures can be contractually binding on the institution.

• In regard to campus affairs, courts have been more willing to hear, evaluate and make policy determinations on disputes that center on issues unrelated to academic standards. Courts are more likely to reverse an administrative decision that cannot be characterized as an *academic* decision.

• Courts have rejected a broad interpretation of a comprehensive education contract, but will recognize a specific breach of a contractual commitment for a specific institutional program or procedure. If a court determines that contractual rights were arbitrarily denied, or the student was treated radically different from other students, as when the institution fails to follow established procedures or apply them uniformly, the court may grant relief based upon the terms of an express or implied agreement.

• Students, operating as consumers of educational services, will continue to challenge academic programs and services that do not coincide with expressed or implied commitments made by the institution or its designated representatives.

Guidelines for Administrative Practice

In the past twenty-five years, students in higher education have become predisposed to initiate litigation to resolve their campus disputes. As students continue to petition courts to rule on institutional regulations and procedures, it is imperative that campus administrators review operational policies to be certain that they will bear judicial scrutiny. Periodic review by the institution will lead to heightened awareness and sharpened purpose and will insure that the institution is providing programs and services consistent with its contractual obligations.

The following operational guidelines have emerged from this study:

• Beginning with the initial inquiry by a potential applicant for admission, an institution should provide accurate and comprehensive printed information on programs, regulations, procedures and services.

• Institutions should conduct an annual review of operational codes including all programs, policies and administrative procedures to ensure that they are able to fulfill all express commitments offered to students. The following specific elements of the student-institution contractual relationship should be examined:

Admission Policies - Although an institution has the authority to set its own admission standards based on its educational mission, the criteria for admission must be administered equi-

tably to all applicants.

Tuition and Fee Charges and Refund Policies - The catalog should contain up-to-date information on all education costs, financial aid options, criteria and procedures, and fee refund procedures. Tuition and fee schedules should contain a disclaimer statement that will allow the institution to adjust their charges and justify their alteration.

Conduct Regulations and Disciplinary Procedural Guidelines Although colleges and universities have maintained the authority to establish rules and regulations and conduct their own internal disciplinary proceedings, the expressed procedures for the campus resolution of a rule violation must be followed and must be applied uniformly to all students.

Grievance Procedures - A clearly articulated process for students to appeal a campus judicial decision should be provided, in written form, to all students, faculty and administrators. The procedures should be written with specificity and in easily understandable language. From a contractual perspective, courts have examined disciplinary procedures to determine if they were implemented in good faith and exhibited procedural fairness.

Program Offerings - A regular review of course offerings and syllabi should be conducted to be certain that all courses listed are actually being offered and are accurately described for students. Additionally, prior to the creation of a new program or the modification or discontinuance of an existing program, academic planners should identify the number of students that will be affected by such a decision and addresss the obligations that have been made to them by the institution.

Degree and Graduation Requirements - Although degree and graduation requirements are academic decisions, institutional standards should be expressed in official publications so that students can receive and understand expectations for the performance that is required by them to obtain a degree.

• All student-related policies and procedures must be examined to ensure that they conform to current state and federal laws, rules and codes.

• Administrative officials should make reasonable efforts to ensure that all enrolled students are provided with handbooks and catalogs of the institution. Admissions information should include an explicit statement that emphasizes the need for comprehension of all information contained in institutional publications.

• In addition to an assessment of the accuracy of all campus publications, institutions should ensure that descriptions of all student rights and responsibilities as well as institutional obligations are written so as to be easily understood by students. Through orientation programs and other dissemination opportunities, campus administrators should provide on-going information to inform all students of existing and proposed policies and regulations. These written and personal communications should be augmented by periodic canvassing of students to ensure that official communications are reaching students, are understandable and are followed.

• Official publications should include a disclaimer that will reserve to the institution the authority to modify their contents or any related policies, procedures, practices or fees. In each statement, the specific authority of appropriate administrative representatives should be delineated and explained to students. Students should have knowledge of those employees who have designated authority to represent the institution. Students should also be informed of the administrative chain of command in all aspects of their institutional relationships, particularly in regard to the disciplinary program of the institution.

• Faculty and staff should undergo periodic in-service education regarding their responsibilities for counseling and providing accurate information to students. All professional staff should be informed that oral or written statements made to students in regard to programs, services and procedures may be viewed as a contractual representation and may be held legally binding on the institution.

• To reduce the likelihood of student legal challenges to administrative policies and rulings, institutions should provide students with opportunties for active, continuous dialogue and involvement in the decision-making process of the institution. Open communication with students should remain a priority for administrators and faculty at all levels of the institution where decisions are being made that directly affect the students.

• Internal dispute resolution mechanisms should be formalized and available to students for handling claims of unfair treatment or breach of obligation. Appeals procedures should be available for resolution of grievances and for administrative review.

• Campus administrators should consult with institutional attorneys for information and counsel prior to making policy decisions that affect students. Institutional attorneys should provide regular briefings on current legal issues in higher education to administrators, faculty and student affairs staff.

• Regardless of whether or not there is an attorney on staff, administrators and faculty must increase their knowledge and understanding of relevant legal issues in higher education, including the constitutional rights of students and contract law as a basis for student challenges to academic decisions. Awareness of new legislation and court decisions will enable administrators to keep colleagues and student leaders aware of legal standards so that they will act reasonably and within appropriate legal parameters in their dealings with students.

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Dialogue

The Role Of Institutional Research In Higher Education

A Conversation with:

Dr. Paul L. Dressel, Michigan State University, Professor Emeritus

Dr. John E. King, Interim Dean of the College of Education, USC

Dr. Kenneth L. Schwab, Senior Vice President for Administration and Chief Executive Assistant to the President, USC

Schwab: We have a special guest, Dr. Paul Dressel from Michigan State University, visiting the University to address issues of institutional planning and institutional research. Dr. Dressel has a long and distinguished career at Michigan State, having begun his career there in 1932; he worked to establish the counseling center at Michigan State and served in several other capacities during his career. He is the author of fourteen books; most recently he has completed a piece on the Hannah years at Michigan State. John Hannah is a special friend of Dr. Dressel's. Dr. King is going to start our conversation.

King: It is nice to be here with you and when I am with you, I, of course, think first of all of Michigan State and of President Hannah and of so many things that you have done in higher education. Do you mind taking a moment to talk about the fifty years that you have been associated with Michigan State in terms of how large it was when you went there and what are some of the things that happened.

Dressel: Now there's a very easy subject to talk about, but then I was there for a very long time. I can still remember very vividly the first day that I arrived there in 1932. In fact, when I started out in my car to drive there, I wasn't sure whether there was a Michigan State College separate from the University of Michigan or whether it was part of the University of Michigan, but I soon found out that there was a distinction between the land grant institution at Michigan State and the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. The enrollment was somewhere around 3,500 to 4,000 at the time I arrived; having stayed there something over fifty years, I have almost forgotten at this point the growth factor. Present enrollment is about 42,000. It reached about 45,000 at its highest point and I still remember vividly the year following the close of World War II in which our enrollment went from about 7,000 to 18,000 in a matter of eight or ten months. An example of the planning and foresightedness of President John Hannah was the efforts he had made to get housing on campus for faculty and students which meant the University was one institution in the country that could accommodate very large numbers of students.

My own career there as you mentioned, except for the first three years in the Mathematics Department, was a unique and interesting experience in that, I was the first person in the various jobs that I held. As the first person in them I had a considerable amount of freedom in what I could do with the job and I still remember vividly the experience when I look on the last one as Director of Institutional Research and Assistant Provost. President Hannah asked me if I would take on the job and I started to respond, "Yes, under,..." and he interrupted me and he said, "I know what you are going to say. You'll do it if you can do what you please, you always do." And that was my career at Michigan State and that is why I heartily enjoyed it.

King: You mentioned institutional research and I've enjoyed reading an article of yours, a piece called "Your Musings." In this you said that research or educational research hasn't had or doesn't have much influence on the way colleges and universities are run. Would you comment on that idea?

Dressel: I think that when we conduct research in education and we are dealing with the problems of how human beings develop, how they grow and the complexity of the human organism, it's a little unpredictable just what will work with given individuals or a group of individuals under certain circumstances. So much of education research, it seems to me, is conducted under specified conditions which may not be possible when one is actually setting up a classroom and finding professors to engage in them. The other thing that I always point out is that, as evidence shows very clearly, printing was first resisted by university faculty because they had their lectures all worked out. They wanted to be sure that students came to hear those

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This dialogue was edited by Kenneth L. Schwab, Ed.D., Senior Vice President for Administration and Chief Executive Assistant to the President, University of South Carolina.

lectures and if somebody had made copies of them and distributed them, why then, the lecture was destroyed by the availability of the material. So professors, I think, tend to fall into fixed patterns of behavior based upon the idea that a professor is a scholar, that he knows a great deal about a particular topic, and he is the authority and the best way for anybody else to become acquainted with this is to come into his lecture and listen to him talk.

On the other hand I often pointed out to students that when they go to classes and listen to lectures the number of minutes out of the 50 minutes that are really significant may be limited in number. The problem of listening to a lecture is essentially that of picking out the really significant points to take notes on and to study after the lecture is over. This must be done so that you really get a sense of the important things that are said and get those organized in some meaningful way.

Schwab: Now in your writing, just to kind of pick up on that, particularly in your books *Confidence and Crisis* and *Independent Study*, you reflect on the value of the department and how it helps to develop the intellect of young people. Can you comment on things like the department's credibility, quality, and autonomy and where you see that departmental division evolving. What is the way departmental organization should be going at this point?

Dressel: I have been highly interested in the study of the importance of the departments and, over the years, have been involved in departmental work at Michigan State University and at other universities and colleges around the country. The Department of Mathematics that I joined at Michigan State in 1932 placed a great deal of emphasis on good teaching. I can still recall the professor who was also the head of the department saying every time the staff met that we had the obligation to make clear the homework assignments each day and to collect that homework and to go over at least a significant portion of it so that we knew what problems the students were having with the materials. This would tell the faculty what parts of the previous class sessions needed to be repeated to get full understanding. I also listened to many lectures from him as to the service role of this department. I remember he said at one point, "If I'm not in the office when the phone rings, I don't care whether it is a teacher or principal or the governor. If they ask a question and want some help, let's give it to them. If you can do it, do it. If you can't do it, take down the name and the number and tell me what its all about and we'll get an answer to them in a short time." The department was interested in serving other departments. I think that was typical of that day. It seems to me now at the institution with which I have long been associated and with other universities, this kind of role of serving the people, serving the needs of the state, has been replaced by a continuing search for research of national and international prominence. Now that makes some sense if you see the role of the university and those of departments as extending the discipline which they represent; then the primary function becomes research and adding knowledge to that existing knowledge. But that doesn't have a great deal to do, I insist, with the education that takes place in the undergraduate classes and I think that has been lost sight of over the years.

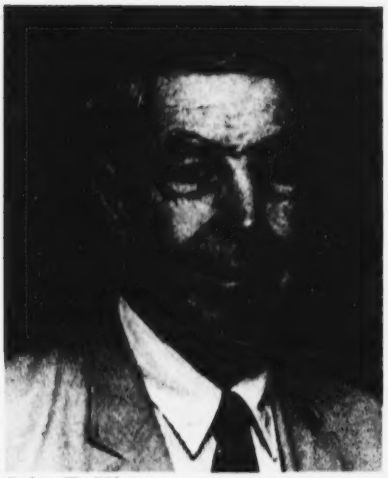
Schwab: Do you have thoughts about how we regain that focus and what we can do to recapture the two basic missions of service and undergraduate education?

Dressel: It is not easy to indicate how we might do that because the pressure is on institutions over the country for research, for getting a distinguished faculty in terms of research productivity, recognition and scholarship. When one begins to talk about good teaching, he faces the fact that there is no agreement as to just how we measure good teaching and no assurance in most institutions that a person who spends a great deal of time on teaching students will get recognition for that. It is understandable in the sense that good teaching is not as quantifiable in nature and that someone who published several papers or a book can stand ahead of an excellent teacher when it comes time to line up for promotion and salary increases. There's less of a problem on the part of the department chairman or of a dean to justify recognition of somebody who had published something than it is to pick out of a half dozen people the one or two people who are the best teachers and reward them. I think much of the success in re-emphasizing learning and teaching really depends upon administrators who constantly emphasize that this is a major obligation for the institution. These administrators must take the appropriate steps to identify and reward faculty who engage in that kind of activity. There aren't too many of those administrators around in the present day.

King: When you visit an institution like this one, and you are working with a young administrator like Dr. Schwab who is working to develop a plan for 2001 and on other fronts in this University, what things cross your mind when someone uses a terms like *excellence*. I know you've heard that term about as many times as anyone that I have been with. In the times that I've been with you, though, on panels and in other situations I don't remember your using that term a great deal. Do you have any comment about the so-called *pursuit of excellence* or *search for excellence*? It is a little bit related to what you've just been thinking about. Is there any particular suggestion you would give to Dr. Schwab or President Holderman in connection with the so-called pursuit of excellence?

Dressel: My concern about the use of the word is that when it gets into the conversation of faculty members and then becomes one of the major goals that are to be pursued, it takes on a limited interpretation. In short, I'm saying that I'm not against excellence. Most people are trying to do a darn good job of whatever they do. Maybe not the best job, which is sometimes implied by excellence because I'm not sure we ever know what the best job is in any case. But a commitment to doing a job well, if you are going to undertake it at all, seems to me to be essential to a college or university and to any department that is involved. The problem with excellence is that it gets interpreted in terms of an institution's wanting to be one of the top twenty research universities in the country or in the world or they want to have

Paul L. Dressel



John E. King

Kenneth L. Schwab

the strongest program in the particular field. I don't think that kind of comparison has very much to do with the quality of the work that is being offered to the students. Therefore, I just resist the use of *excellence* because when I see that term I am almost certain that the faculty involved are now competing for national prominence or international prominence and not thinking very much about students.

King: I believe that was a beautiful statement and I am so glad you made that comment. Do you have in your own immediate history examples you could refer to of where so-called educational research or studies done by planning or institutional research people have actually helped solve problems? When you were in this role at Michigan State, did you feel like institutional research could be put to work to make things better?

Dressel: Yes, I certainly felt that. I think that many of the most elaborate studies have less effect than some of the other simple minded collections of data. I still recall with considerable amusement when we began to provide lectures over the campus by closed circuit television and so we would have in one spot on the campus a professor lecturing and then we might have as many as a dozen classrooms around the campus in which this television program was available to students. One of the questions that was raised naturally was: "Is closed circuit television effective and is there any difference between the room in which the lecture is available and those rooms in which students just come in and sit down?" I had a young doctoral student working with me at the time who was rather insightful and after we talked at some length about various ways to get at this and we ran into some difficulties because the lecturer involved didn't really want to subject his students to this kind of major comparison. The young man said to me one day, "You know, a number of these classes are scheduled at 8:00 a.m. and I've walked around and looked at some of them and I have an idea." I said, "What is it?" "Well," he said, "let's send somebody to each of these lecture rooms at 8:00 where there is closed circuit TV." He said, "I noticed when the students come into those rooms, they pick up the morning student paper. Now, my theory is that if it is a good lecture when they walk out they will carry the paper with them and if it is a bad lecture they will have read the paper and will probably throw it on the floor. So we count the number of papers on the floor and determine how good the lecture was." And that was a very good approach!

King: Makes a lot of sense.

Dressel: The amusing thing was that when we reported it to the professors concerned, they agreed that this was probably evidence that the students were or were not paying attention on a given day. Yes, I think research can bring about change, but I think sometimes the most elaborate kinds of research that we carry on doesn't have the impact of something relatively simple that's close to where people are thinking and working.

King: Around the country, particularly in southern states, governors are emphasizing public education and are now including higher education in their platforms. They are being

elected on platforms related to public and higher education. One of the most interesting issues that I have seen used is the idea that good teaching can be evaluated precisely enough to distribute merit pay and other rewards for teachers are based on these evaluations. What have you learned with your experience at Michigan State and elsewhere about ability to evaluate or measure good teaching or particularly undergraduate teaching?

Dressel: Well, in one sense I've learned a lot, and in another sense I think I've learned very little The problem really comes back to getting an agreement with faculty about what constitutes good teaching. Many faculty members, I think, start with the assumption that a course is set up to cover a segment of a discipline and good teaching is taking place if this professor is an authority in this discipline and gives a lecture which is regarded as sound by his colleagues. That sort of leaves out what happens to the students. I sometimes use as an example that if a Russian professor came over here and lectured to some American students in Russian, he might have done a very good job of lecturing, but there would not have been any learning taking place. Therefore, it was not good teaching. That makes the point that whether or not the lecture is communicated to the student and whether they learn something and think differently as a result of the lecture is important. But, it seems to me that we have to admit that good teaching shows up in various forms. One way to look at it is to review one's own experience. I think the best mathematics teacher I ever had was the worst teacher in mathematics I ever saw. That seems like a contradiction, but let me add a sentence or two. This man was not very coherent in class and really wasn't a very good mathematician and I say that from a later background of having a Ph.D. in math. I couldn't make the judgment when I was a freshman but I could later on. But, one day in a calculus class, he kept watching me and he stopped me afterward and he said, "Paul, I think you would be better off to stay out of this class. Just go ahead and work through this book at your own rate. If you have some problems come in and maybe I can help you but I think you'll learn more if you go on independently." So, what I'm saying is at that moment this man became an excellent teacher while in other contexts he wasn't a very good teacher. One has to allow for the fact then that the significant thing about teaching is not what teaching goes on, but what learning takes place. You have to come back and look at the students, I believe. That is why I have taken a dim view of the elaborate rating scales that have been constructed and spread around the country by educational testing services. Other instruments made on local campuses, are handed out in great numbers to students and checked off and then a list comes out to faculty members with the student ratings. I don't know what those student ratings mean because there are several ways to get good student ratings. What I really want to know is what is the aftermath of the experience with the professor and that is very difficult to get at partly because professors themselves don't cooperate very well.

Schwab: You know one of the things that higher education is facing today, most particularly in the southeast with the Southern Association's new criteria for assessment, is how to assess what is going on in the classroom and how to assess the outcomes of education. Can you comment on that? You've written a lot about the subject and added significantly to the literature. What is your perspective about how institutions can successfully approach and deal with assessment of outcomes?

Dressel: I would much rather spend time and effort working with individuals, getting them to be concerned about individual students and aware of what is happening in a classroom and what happened after a classroom session. It seems to me that these large programs such as you are talking about place emphasis on something very important, but they tend to yield stereotypes. They tend to cause opposition on the part of large groups of teachers; they stir up more difficulty sometimes than they solve problems; and so I am bothered by the fact that these programs recur. I don't know how many times I have seen ,over my career in higher education, efforts to improve teaching and yet it seems to me that, after the effort is carried through, teaching goes on just as it is or perhaps as it was before. We haven't really accomplished anything. Much of the effort was fighting the attempted program to improve teaching, but when one turns to working with individual teachers, then it seems to me you begin to see results.

Schwab: What about the state role? Increasingly our state legislators and our governors are concerned about what's happening within the classroom in higher education. What should their role be?

Dressel: Well, that's a difficult question. On one hand, I don't agree with some people that it's none of their business. That, after all, in a college or unviersity you've got a group of Ph.D. professors, and they know their field, and they know how to teach, and legislators and politicians and even the ordinary common people ought not to be involved. It seems to me that, particularly in a public institution supported by public funds, that the public has a right to ask that the institution serve their needs. And when members of the legislature or the governor begin to raise questions about the quality of instruction in a program, I hope that we have within the institutions deans, a president and others who will use this as one means to focus faculty attention on the matter and do something about it. I think there is a tendency sometimes to react to the instance as meaningless criticism or inappropriate criticism and then try to throw up some kind of screen or provide some kind of data to say that this isn't so. Well, there is a lot of truth in these criticisms and our job is to get to the root of the matter and try to do something about them.

King: In connection with our dealing with legislators and commissions and boards, do you think that we provide them with more information now by means of computer retrieval procedures than we used to? As you remember what you and President Hannah provided your board or the legislature when Michigan State was growing, do you think it is easier to share the truth about an institution now and its services, its productivity than it was years ago? I didn't say *understand* it, but ....

Dressel: Well, using the word "truth ...."

King: We'll say information instead of truth.

Dressel: Using the word truth complicates the problem. One of my one-liners, as you spoke about them earlier, is that it is a good thing that universities seek the truth because you surely can't find it in the data that they turn out. I think that what happens here is that legislatures, budget offices, and so forth have asked for and received much more data than they used to. This is a result of the complications of social programs over this country and the amount of money that's required in those. Higher education in my earlier days did not receive that kind of scrutiny because the amount of money put into higher education was a small piece of the total budget. Now it is a big one, but social programs of one kind or another also take large amounts of money so there is real competition for the higher education dollar these days. Now, every university that I know anything about has had to multiply the amount of data which it provides; but, when you begin to look at the data provided, it indicates the number of students, the number of full-time equivalent students, because what the legislatures found out after a while is not every student was enrolled for a full load, so we made a combination of that by giving a full-time equivalent. This is kind of a mythical individual that no one ever really recognized, but is something we turn out. Then, they want to know just what faculty load is.

Well, any of you who have been on a campus for a long time know the surest way to get a faculty mad or a chairman or a dean mad is to ask what faculty load is. The truth is most faculty members don't know what their load is. Because if they are committed to their job, they are doing a lot of things that they really don't count up at the end of the day. What you end up talking about is how many classes, how many courses, how many credit hours are met by this person. But there is no relation necessarily between credit hours and sessions with students. So we are turning in a lot of data which may be very accurate in one sense, but what we find on the other hand, and what we've known full well when we've turned it in, is it really doesn't answer the questions that they are asking. What they want to know is whether the state is getting its money's worth and whether the state is getting its money's worth depends upon the quality of the education and the number of people being educated. And we really don't have that kind of data. We can tell how many graduated. Some legislatures a few years ago threatened to budget institutions on the percentage of students who got a degree after four years. That was coming a little too close to the truth, but there is a point to be made there that the graduation is not the sole criteria. A person might take only one, three-credit course, say in accounting, and be able to get a much better job and make a major contribution as the result of that course. A degree is not the total result of a college education. My answer is yes, we've been giving a lot of data today that doesn't really quite answer the questions that the legislature has been asking. We do know that in one sense the data helps to satisfy budget officers and the legislatures that the faculty is doing something, that they aren't just sitting around. And we knew that they weren't in the first place.

King: I believe very strongly in what you said a little earlier about the importance of undergraduate teaching and relationships with students on the part of the professors which lead to learning and growing which are unique and different in each case. Don't you think there is a chance that university and college presidents are intelligent enough and bright enough and dedicated enough that we might see something of a renaissance in this. I'm thinking about the *Involvement in Learning* report emphasis on the front loading. Do you feel alone when you say something like that in this time and this culture of ours or do you have hopes that some good things may be starting or going on? What do you run into on this?

Dressel: That's an interesting question, John. I've been asked several times at this point, when I've been retired for a few years and looking back at what's happened, how I feel about what I have accomplished in higher education by all of my studies and work. I say, well, in a way I solace myself that things might have been worse if I hadn't been around. I don't claim too much, but I do think that something happens. No, I think that it is true that administrators generally become sensitive to the kinds of things that we have been talking about here. One doesn't have to be a dean or a president very long before the number of letters and notes and complaints from parents and students make them aware that undergraduate education is terribly important. On the other hand, they are faced in the modern day with a pattern of administrators below the president at least being selected by faculty committees and national searches. The faculty involved are heavily concerned, because of their own background in disciplines and research, that the person coming into the administrative job have a background which is favorable to the continuation of the kind of emphases which they are used to. So the administrator comes in with two or three strikes against him almost in terms of any major change and then we have the phenomenon so common any more of rotating chairs. You go into a job and you are there two or three years and then there is a decision whether you continue or whether somebody else comes in. Very frequently administrators find in these days that there is so little freedom in what they can do, they want to rotate out to let somebody else take over. Presidents will have limited impact because of the way they are chosen and because of the faculty entrenchment in departments and colleges based upon disciplines, unless they can get additional funds beyond those in the regular budget. A president who can acquire additional funds from some source and establish discretionary funds which can be applied judiciously around an institution can bring about major change. Once you have the money to reward the kinds of things you want in faculty, you can get it. But, as long as you are dependent upon the general funds pattern which is already fixed, it is very difficult to bring about change.

King: I hope you get quoted in the Greenville papers on that statement. That is a very interesting point. What is better now, in connection with teaching and learning, than when you and

Dr. Hannah were working together? Do you see certain things that have come along pretty well?

Dressel: Oh yes, one can be humorous and say that on most campuses the residence halls and the food services are better than they use to be. I'm not sure the students quite appreciate that, but since I occasionally indulge in going into residence halls, visiting the students and eating there, I'm sure at Michigan State that this has happened and at a number of other places. I think also that there is on the whole more attention to what students are concerned about. At the time I came into education, faculty members were setting up programs very tightly in terms of their concepts of what students ought to be taking. There has been much increase in the range of elective courses and the range of majors available to students. Now this complicates the student's choice, and very frequently I don't think we do the job that we should in helping students become aware of the resources and the various possibilities and the career implications in the long run. But, I think we have advanced our thinking in the sense that we are concerned with the students' education; we are concerned with providing some kind of flexibility and the student has much more of an opportunity in the present day to make a choice among courses and programs than was true 50 years ago when I came into the picture.

Schwab: One of my favorite stories that you've told in the time we've been together is the one about the student who came from Detroit to major in dairy management and how Dr. Hannah responded. Could you recall that for us?

Dressel: Yes, I enjoy recalling it. I relive it vividly every time I recall it. I had been moved out of mathematics and made director of counseling, and I always knew somehow a mathematician suddenly became an expert in counseling young people simply because he assumed the title. This particular occasion you are talking about involved a young man who came on campus with his father, who was the owner and operator of the largest milk distributing dairy in Detroit. I always comment that I'm not sure the young man had ever seen a cow, but it wasn't really necessary to see a cow in order to operate a dairy in Detroit. But, he came at the behest of his father, embarked to the College of Agriculture at Michigan State and wanted to take a program in dairy management. Well, the good people over there didn't know quite what to make of this. They told him they had a program in dairy husbandry but that obviously involved a dairy farm and cows and that sort of thing. This young man wasn't the least interested in that and somebody finally said, "Well what you are talking about is management. That's over in the College of Business." So, they sent him over there. The people over there had a program on management all laid out. He looked at that and said, "That doesn't have anything to do with dairies, milk, butter, or anything that I'm concerned with." And at that point one of the men in the college called me and said, "We've got a young man here who is ready to go back to Detroit. Would you talk to him?" So he strolled into my office and said he wanted a program in dairy management. Well, being director of counseling didn't make me an expert in dairy management by any means, but down the hall was President John Hannah who, above all things, was interested in students, and time and again I'd recalled he'd drop everything else to look at a student's problem. "Sure, come on down." So he sat at his desk and got the catalog out and talked about this and he built a four year program in dairy management cutting across the colleges of agriculture and business. And, very proud of himself, he said to me, "Paul, does that take care of the problem?" I said, "Well, no not quite." He said, "What's the problem?" "Well, there are two deans involved here." So, he got on the phone to one dean and he said he would appreciate it if they would approve a joint program in dairy management in this exceptional case, and then he got the other dean, and, amazingly, both deans readily agreed. A joint program cutting across two colleges, that was a major accomplishment in itself you know. But the young man was happy, and I was happy, and Hannah was happy until the next year's catalogue came out. When I picked up the catalogue, and I leafed through the thing, and I came to a program on page so and so, program in dairy management. Exactly what John Hannah had worked out for this young man with no electives, no choice at all. It took one year with no program to another year with a completely specified program and nobody else could ever have the experience of planning their own program. This demonstrates how quickly programs can be entrenched in the curriculum and the flexibility for the students involved is lost.

King: There's a saying here in Columbia, that if a visiting dignitary goes to Goatfeathers and has a certain kind of coffee there that he will return, and I hope you go to Goatfeathers and hunt up some of that coffee, and Dr. Schwab knows where it is, so it won't be difficult. It's a perfectly nice place; it has some interesting things there to do. I hope you come back here often. I think your ideas are ageless and valuable. Do you think undergraduates have changed much in fifty years?

Dressel: That is a question I really can't answer, you know. I'm not quite the same as I was fifty years ago. I must say that, year after year, it seems to me that students have been younger, but I think that's only because I don't admit I'm older. On the other hand, as I have dealt with individual students, I have had a feeling that there is a little bit more emphasis on the part of students in personal development in their own immediate future rather than in terms of concern about social problems, national welfare and things of that kind. I don't know whether that's an appropriate judgment or whether it is just a kind of feeling I have that as a result of national and international problems and uncertainties about the future that all of us have tended to become more immediately preoccupied with what the future holds for us.

Schwab: Dr. Dressel, we certainly have enjoyed the time with you and with Dr. King and let me assure you we shall visit Goatfeathers, because we have plans to have you return and visit with us. Thank you for coming here. Thank you for sharing time with us.

Dressel: My pleasure.

In the Field

The Challenge of Effective Teaching

Timothy J. Bergen, Jr.

There are many definitions of effective teaching. "Good college teaching is contextual or situational," contends Turner (1970, p. 153). How one defines the *quality* of teaching depends upon the set of goals, the kind of students and the subject matter (Jackson, 1986). Defining the characteristics of effective teaching involves striving toward a relevant goal. Many teachers would benefit from polishing and refining skills that could increase their teaching effectiveness. Improvement requires commitment. McKeachie (1978) states that the most effective teacher is one with enthusiasm, one who is active and energetic. Achieving dynamic, effective teaching involves consistent effort and determination. The purpose of this article is to clarify the challenge by specifying important characteristics of effective teaching and then by suggesting a program for personal development designed to meet the challenge in a practical, palatable, and rewarding way. Characteristics of effective teaching apply to all disciplines. For example, the characteristics that students rate *most preferred* in evaluations of their instructors have to do with *structure* (Turner, 1970). Structure includes organizing the course, making the framework clear to the students and scheduling learning activities within a specified framework. This clarification offers students the opportunity to understand expectations and make constructive use of content. The college instructor, by spending more time on course structure, can offer the student a framework from which to establish a point of reference, decipher current information, compare ideas and identify patterns. Students need a framework, says McKeachie (1978), into which they can place related bits of subject matter.

Warmth and friendliness are listed as the second most preferred characteristics when students rate instructors (McKeachie, 1974). Students respond positively to demonstrated sensitivity. Effective teaching should reflect an ability to understand the student, and to draw out the student's best work. Rapport involves being able to advise the student in areas in need of improvement while maintaining the student's self-confidence. Students appreciate sincerity. They are more likely to assimilate and master content if they feel that the teacher is concerned about their individual progress.

In addition to building structure and establishing rapport, a teacher should arouse interest and curiosity. The key is motivation. To have a student say, "You really care about this material, don't you?" should be one of the teacher's highest compliments. The instructor must be personally involved with content for it to effectively stimulate students. Instructors must strive to offer content to the student in a manner that can be assimilated into the individual's experience, thus making content of personal importance. Importance is relative, and the effective teacher will attempt to arouse interest and curiosity through anecdotes, examples and ideas.

Content must have value to the instructor if it is to affect students. The teacher must remember that every gesture and every intonation of voice will reflect attitude about the subject. Students are perceptive. If the teacher deems the subject matter relevant and worthwhile it will be revealed in the presentation. On the contrary, the poorly motivated instructor can easily initiate a cycle of negativity in students.

The demands of the instructor affect students (McKeachie, 1975). Teachers in multi-section courses often hear students complain that those in other sections are graded easier, do not have to work as hard, or are exempt from certain assignments. Whether a teacher is involved in a multi-section course or not, he or she is never free from comparisons by students with other instructors. Certainly, there is a continuum in teaching that connects the easy course on one end with the *bear* (or difficult) course. Teachers should attempt to be reasonable in their expectations. As Walcott indicated, "A single course — of which the student carries five or six — could quite effectually preempt all of his time. He may be assigned as many as three

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novels for a weekend's study, or twenty pages of poetry of which a single page would challenge his mind's best effort. He is forced into an intellectual immortality." (1975, p. 10). There seems to be a direct correlation between high grades and high ratings on teacher and course evaluations. Some teachers tend to be *easy* to achieve higher ratings, others are just easy because they are lazy. Students want a return for the effort and time commitment a course demands. Though it would be naive to say they do not want a good grade, many students will rationalize a low grade if they have been challenged, and gained something, and if they feel their return was justified by the time and effort spent.

A fifth factor, often a characteristic of effective teaching, is interaction. There are few classroom environments in which a teacher cannot permit or encourage students to give their opinions and argue points (Turner, 1970). Feedback from students is important for two major reasons. First, it encourages the give-and-take necessary to allow students to make sense of material and to put it into a context they can understand and appreciate. Promoting interaction is part of giving one's mind and heart to teaching because through interaction the students see the teacher as one who is active, productive, and willing to share. When students perceive the teacher as one who has no desire to impress, who does not have to lean on the opinions of others, who is spontaneous and willing to improvise, they will see him or her as one who has a sense of reality and as one who is truly human (Beecher & Beecher, 1984).

Students' confidence in the instructor's authority of content will increase when given the opportunity for interaction. Interaction increases students' confidence in the teacher and, correspondingly, their desire to further share and learn.

A final factor, evaluation, has two important ramifications as it bears on effective teaching. The first is the teacher's objective evaluation. As teachers accept the challenge of teaching, they will find that being emotionally unaffected and uninvolved is essential if the evaluation of students is to be objective. One reason for the grade inflation from which education has suffered may be associated with the *love-oriented*, humanistic generation of the late sixties and early seventies. During this time greater rapport began to occur, but along with it, emotional attachments as well. Teachers who considered their students as friends could not be unbiased when it came to grades. The conflict could have been resolved if the professional role of the teacher was neither compromised or jeopardized.

It is not likely that the professional role of the teacher will be compromised or jeopardized if the teacher keeps the two principal goals of education in mind. The first goal is "to create men who are capable of doing new things — men who are creative, inventive and discoverers. The second goal of education is to form minds which can be critical, can verify and not accept everything they are offered." (Ripple & Rockcastle, 1984). Carl Rogers (1969), with similar motivation, defines the aim of education as the facilitation of learning. Rapport and interaction, as well as other characteristics of effective teaching, are means to these ends — not ends in themselves. The teacher, then, stands as "a mediator between what the students now are and what they may become" (Walcott, 1975,p.10). Keeping the two principal goals of education in mind will encourage professionalism; the teacher should never step outside the bounds of his or her profession.

The second ramification of evaluation has to do with the teacher's ability to devise appropriate evaluation techniques. Testing is an important part of the educational process, but a teacher needs methods of evaluating the students that are educational for the student. Eble (1966) believes that tests must be keyed to long-range, rather than rote-memory goals. Some tests, for example those covering specific definitions or lists, force students into rote memorization. A student who expects such an examination will spend time underlining, highlighting, making lists and memorizing definitions and dates. The result of such cognitive calisthenics will not likely affect the student's future behavior outside this class or his or her lifelong learning. Forcing students into rote memory can destroy the effectiveness of both teacher and course. It is difficult for a teacher to generate an examination that tests desired objectives. What the student expects the teacher to test is important to learning. Time and effort in devising and constructing appropriate evaluation techniques is important because it can significantly affect results in the quality of student learning. A good test, for example, can stimulate creativeness, cause invention and motivate discovery. It can also produce critical analysis, induce students to verify information, and therefore, provoke them to be discriminating.

Structure, rapport, the ability to arouse interest and curiosity, the level of difficulty, interaction, and evaluation are the most important factors in effective teaching. The quality of teaching would improve drastically if every instructor in education today would concentrate on these six factors. The challenge will be attainable if the teacher follows a practical program for personal adjustment. The following program should provide a means to reach the end — effective teaching.

The first item of the program is submissions. This involves resigning oneself to one's role as teacher. In talking about novice teachers, Meyer Cahn (1970) states that "Greater than any other difficulty is the problem of teacher defensiveness." Defensiveness often results from resistance to be submissive. Submission involves acceptance of one of the axioms of teaching and that is the inevitability of it. A teacher should realize that teaching (of some kind) is going to occur when one comes in contact with students, therefore, every teacher should seek to make the experience as positive and as rewarding as possible (Highet, 1976). Submission does not mean passivity; it means accepting the challenge that the role occasions and committing oneself to the purposes of that role. Submission means knowing the subject matter and enjoying it. It means knowing the students. It means having wide intellectual interests. Ideally, a teacher should see, think, and strive to understand. Submit-

ting oneself to the role of teacher means making oneself relevant by staying in touch with the student activity outside the classroom.

Although teaching involves the ability to inspire, encourage, and guide learning, it can be repetitious but then so are housekeeping and hog-raising. We make a living from what we get, but we make a life from what we give. Submission necessarily involves finding a challenge in doing some of the necessary routine things. There is always more to any job than what meets the eye; submission means accepting it.

The second item on the program of personal development is assertion. This requires actively committing oneself to the purposes of education and to the purposes of one's discipline. Assertion is injecting oneself actively into the process of educating students. As Walcott states:

> The mission calls for no little skill . . . Many . . . [students] come with already blunted faculties, tired plodders throughthe deserts of formalism. If one could somehow open up the gate and start them down the true road, they might themselves proceed into the beautiful country (1975).

Assertion means doing what is necessary to make a vivid and meaningful impression— to make a difference that you have taught at all. The job involves making students think often enough that they learn to like it.

Joy is the third point in the personal development of the effective instructor. Joy calls for the expression of happiness in the fulfillment of one's responsibilities. McKeachie (1975) says, "Teaching should be fun." Gilbert Highet, in his book on *The Art of Teaching* (1950) expresses it this way:

> When a class and its teacher all laugh together, they cease for a time to be separated by individuality, authority and age. They become a unit, feeling pleasure and enjoying the shared experience. If that community can be prolonged or re-established, and applied to the job of thinking, the teacher will have succeeded.

Joy means showing enthusiasm and energy for the tasks at hand. The early forms of the word *to study* convey strong pleasant connotations. The ancestor of the verb *to study* is the Latin *studium* which means zeal or application. To inspire students to realize that there is joy in seeking should be a goal of all educators. A teacher cannot instill joy in others if he or she is devoid of it. Joy will create a link between teacher and student. When people experience joy together they become a group of human beings enjoying its existence and out of this environment, the best learning takes place.

The final part of the program is confidence. Teachers should profess certainty in their ability to influence students. All teachers are influential, but all influence need not be worthwhile and productive. There is a strong likelihood that the impressions left with one's students will be positive if the instructor believes that he or she has something important to contribute and does everything possible to insure that the presentation will be effective. In the sales profession, salespeople are instructed to *assume the sale* throughout the transaction. One who acts as if he or she is successful is more likely to accomplish desired goals. There is power in the imagination (Maltz, 1979).

Although there will always be many definitions of effective teaching, just as there will always be good and bad teachers. Being submissive, acting assertive, possessing joy and having confidence will aid in moving one toward his or her own conception of quality. Developing effectiveness is an elusive thing, ever-changing, and always requiring greater effort. Achieving quality simply forms a base for further development. The effective instructor will determine the qualities most effective for him or her and will continually monitor their techniques and behavior to assure advancement and growth. Too often, instructors lack insight concerning problems of their own making in the classroom (Cahn, 1970). To increase insight, challenge should be recognized as an opportunity to experiment with new behaviors to broaden horizons and form a repertoire of positive teaching behaviors. The creative person accepts, encourages, and delights in the new, the different and the unusual — "not merely because it is new or unusual, but because it may throw some new light on our most complex problems" (Hawley, 1983, p. 118). One candle can hardly light another unless it continues to flame. Being an educator and being satisfied with one's identity means accepting the challenge of effective teaching.

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Black Students and the Future of USC

Raymond O. Murphy
Michael F. Welsh
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July 30, 1987

Dr. Murphy:

The University of South Carolina is to be commended for taking a leadership role in addressing, head on, the critical issue of minorities in higher education. I am extremely grateful for having the opportunity to work with you, your staff, and professionals throughout the University on this important project. While much progress has been made, we must continue to build on the foundation we spent much of 1986-87 laying.

One of the first facts I learned about the University of South Carolina was that it had one of the highest minority student enrollments for a predominantly White university in the country. While that is admirable, I came to learn that, unfortunately, its minority enrollment in graduate school was woefully inadequate. With six historically Black colleges within a two hour drive of Columbia, the University, unfortunately, does little to recruit the bright minds aspiring to post graduate degrees. In my visits to these schools, for example, I met outstanding students at Claflin College with plans to enroll in graduate school at Bowling Green University; bright young men and women at Benedict College planning to attend Ohio State; extremely high achievement oriented students at Morris College with dreams of Harvard.

While visiting these schools, I heard common refrains concerning the University of South Carolina:

—it is racist

—yes, I would like to go there, but it hasn't reached out

I know Dr. Holderman is committed to eradicating these misunderstandings. They needlessly hamper the impact the University of South Carolina can have on young minorities in graduate and professional schools. Our research, the dedicated work by you and your staff, must continue. To stop, would be to damage momentum that can result in a remarkable positive new trend in higher education—the proliferation of minorities in graduate higher education.

Malcolm X once said, "Education is our passport to the future and it belongs to the people who prepare for it today." The University of South Carolina has a golden opportunity to be the ship that carries that educational flag for minority students. I am just happy to be aboard.

The preceding was the foreword to the Report of the Task Force on Increasing Minority Graduate Student Enrollment of the University of South Carolina and was signed by Gale Sayers, President of Crest Computer Supplies and consultant to the Task Force.

Gayle Sayers

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"In July of 1877, all the Negroes were removed (from the University of South Carolina) to a special campus in Orangeburg which was the beginning of South Carolina State" (Institute of Southern Studies, 1982, p. 37). Eighty six years later (1963) three Black students, Robert Anderson, James Solomon, and Henri Monteith enrolled for classes under guard and court order. These three reopened the doors of educational opportunity at USC and through those doors have come thousands of students of all races and colors.

In the quarter century since, Black student enrollments have grown significantly. In the Fall of 1987 there were 4,500 Black students enrolled throughout the University of South Carolina system. About 2,000 were undergraduates on the Columbia campus, 800 were graduate students and the remainder were undergraduates enrolled at the campuses of the system. These numbers make the University one of the most integrated flagship institutions among the nation's predominantly White universities.

Black enrollments grew at the University even while a serious decline in the enrollment of Black students in the nation and a lack of enrollment growth in the region were taking place. The American Council on Education recently released a national report on Black student enrollment indicating that minorities in general are under represented on American campuses (minorities represent 23% of the general population yet only 17% of the enrollment) and, for Blacks, representation is on a disproportionate decline. Black enrollment fell 3.3% between 1980 and 1985 at which time there were 1.1 million Black students in college. Black faculty positions declined 4.3% during this period and degree production declined accordingly except at the doctoral level where it remained fairly steady. The report also noted an increasing drop-out rate for Black students in the public schools which predicts an even gloomier outlook for future college enrollments (American Council, 1985).

The Southern Regional Education Board monitors Black enrollments in 15 states including South Carolina. Their 1986 report showed that in these southern states (where 45% of all Black Americans live) the enrollment of Black students had increased by only 2% during the 1980-1985 period. In these 15 states nearly 18% of the total population is Black but only 15% of the college-going group is Black. In the southern region there is a pattern of stagnation in Black student enrollment in colleges (Marks, 1986).

What has contributed to the University of South Carolina 's uniquely successful effort in recruiting and retaining Black students? What has the University learned from its experience that can be shared with other institutions who are seeking to make equal educational opportunity more than just a promise? More importantly, where does Black enrollment fit into the future of the University?

Through happenstance and design the University has developed a very positive record of Black student recruitment and retention. Welsh, Conway, and West (1987) in their study of Black undergraduates at the University found that Black students came to USC first, because of its location in a city where there exists a large stable Black community and second, because of its academic reputation. They stayed because they were comfortable on a campus where there was a large enough number of Black students that made it possible to form a variety of interest groups, where they had the opportunity to take leadership roles in a variety of activities and organizations, where they could live on campus with Black roommates, and where they could gain an understanding of the workings of the campus and find the help required to meet personal and academic needs through a University 101 freshman seminar course.

The University environment itself has been welcoming and Black students have developed a feeling of belonging. Evidence of the campus climate is seen in the fact that Black students have twice been elected to the office of student body president in recent years. They have also served in top leadership positions in a variety of prominent campus organizations and on two recent occasions a Black student has been selected to reign as homecoming queen. These high profile positions have helped support the Black student sense of campus ownership even in the face of a relative lack of Black faculty and staff who might model leadership roles.

In addition to a receptive environment, the perseverance of individual Black students has turned out to be a very important characteristic. Against the odds of lower SAT scores and predicted grade point averages, they achieve and persist at higher rates. Why?

Because they are determined and willing to succeed. Most are first generation college students, that is, their parents did not attend college. In fact, many of their parents did not even complete high school. But, parents as well as high school teachers and other family members are reported to have strongly encouraged these students to stay in college until graduation. The students responded by taking their academic responsibilities very seriously and by reinforcing each other's resolve to stick with it.

The Black undergraduate students of South Carolina are remarkable confirmation that factors other than test scores contribute to success in college. Black Carolina freshmen arrive on campus with high levels of inspiration and motivation. For the most part they live on campus in residence halls where many of the resident advisors are themselves Black upperclassmen. Many also have Black roommates thus avoiding what Jackson (1983) describes as the difficult and sometime unpleasant experiences that Black students have with White roommates. Further, Black undergraduates tend to take the initiative to insure their success. For instance, they enroll in the University 101 freshman seminar course in proportionally larger numbers to take advantage of the positive academic self-concept, realistic self-appraisal, and information about academic requirements and demands of the institution afforded by this uniquely successful course.

At the graduate level, enrollment of Blacks is more problematic. Here, Black students are found mainly in the College of Education. Too large a number of the University's other graduate departments have no Black students enrolled. This fact was highlighted by a task force appointed in the College of Education to study ways to increase graduate enrollments of minority students ("Increasing Minority", 1987). The task force noted the sharp decline of Black students in graduate schools around the nation and in the southeast region. The decline was not as drastic at Carolina but serious nonetheless.

For Black graduate students part-time enrollment and full-time employment is standard. Relatively few Black graduate students attend the University on a full-time basis and thus they take longer to graduate.

Black graduate students expressed the same concern for increasing the number of Black faculty members as did undergraduates, but perhaps for different reasons. Black graduate students seek intellectual and professional identification with faculty members as compared to the undergraduates' interest in Black faculty as social models of success and leadership.

Black students, both graduates and undergraduates, choose to attend the University because they find it academically rich in its offering and personally supportive especially in the availability of financial support. They stay to graduate because they find reinforcements within the campus community that encourage them to complete their degree programs.

The Black presence has been an important part of what Carolina is and what the University can contribute to society. Its future will be largely determined by how well it responds to the dynamics of our changing population.

Dr. Reginald Wilson of the American Council on Education reported recently at an Affirmative Action workshop on campus that present minority birth rates guarantee that by the year 2050, there will be no more minorities in America. We are currently involved in the education of the grandparents of that population. We must begin thinking creatively of an America without minorities and what that means for our educational systems.

The earlier history of American higher education is largely one of small private liberal arts colleges serving to educate the sons of the wealthy and to provide ministers for the church. More recently we have succeeded in putting into place the world's first system of mass higher education open to anyone capable of benefiting from our diverse program offerings. We have never completely succeeded, however, in making our institutions comfortable and inviting to all those who might reasonably benefit from advanced education. There are still large groups of students who are made to feel that they don't fit in well. Black students are not particularly attracted to the sciences nor to those professions that are dependent on the sciences. Women students have the same problem and hesitate to get involved in technical fields traditionally dominated by men. It might be said that White men are still probably the most comfortable in higher education institutions which reflects some of our earlier history. But, even here, men are not completely at ease in some programs such as nursing, home economics, or librarianship.

Ignoring the maldistribution of certain groups among the various fields of endeavor offered in colleges and universities, guarantees that minorities will still exist within the college-educated population even when minorities no longer exist in the overall population. Easily foreseen is the future circumstance where colleges are no longer trusted to control access to the professions because of its blindness to the realities of the American population.

The University of South Carolina will not be so blind. Instead, Carolina will be a different kind of place as the century turns. If its vision for the 2001 comes to pass the University will be recognized as one of the best in the country for its programs of research and graduate-level education (University, 1987). But more importantly, it will become a 21st century prototype university to the degree that it finds ways to mold the expectations of the professions to comfortably fit the aspirations of minority and women students.

The University now finds itself in the lead regarding the care taken to encourage Black students. To stay in the lead and to avoid the loss of trust destined for an unresponsive system of higher education, the University will undoubtedly do things differently. It cannot, for instance, develop a system of assessment to appease the demands of external agencies or politicians without first determining if that system will continue to steer minority students away from certain degree programs. Nor can it set its admissions expectations in such a way as to mask what preparation is truly needed by those seeking to succeed in a degree program.

There is no doubt that the future will present us with some very complex challenges. How we adjust our perceptions to account for the fact that there will be no more minorities is one such challenge. It is a challenge that will be as important to the survival of higher education institutions as the challenges of nuclear threat, overpopulation, global environment, moral breakdown, and the gap between industrial and developing nations are to the survival of the world. There can be no doubt that Black students will play a decisive role in what kind of institution USC will be. Misperceptions of who Black students are and what they can do academically and professionally will serve only to keep the University from realizing its vision of greatness.

Universities are not usually designed to cope with future problems. However, the University of South Carolina has tasted success in providing an inviting climate for Black students. With success comes responsibility and now the University will find itself taking on the critically important responsibility of shaping the expectations of its disciplines to the realities of shaping the expectations of its disciplines to the realities of minority student potential. Its success here may well make the singular difference in allowing any hope for the future well-being of the American system of higher education.

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What Can the Soviets Teach Us About Higher Education?

James V. Dreyfuss

Higher education in the Soviet Union has as its primary function the continued indoctrination of Marxist-Leninist philosophy. Its second purpose is the training of students for the people's economy and culture (Counts, 1957, p. 160). The relationship of higher education to economic development in the Soviet Union is one of close mutual cooperation. This is accomplished under Gosplan, the central planning organization created in 1921 by Lenin to prepare for future manpower needs and to set admission quotas among education institutions (Zajda, 1979). According to V.P. Eliutin, the Director of the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education of the U.S.S.R., Gosplan controls by defining and approving which areas of specialization will be taught in each institute of higher education (1985, 11-12). By contrast, American higher education institutions define their own special roles in a mission statement. The mission statement is developed at each institution by its board of governors or regents in conjuction with the president. This is not the case in Soviet institutions where missions are centrally dictated by Gosplan, which collectively plans the direction and mission of all higher education institutions.

That there is central planning for higher education in the U.S.S.R. indicates strategic techniques are in use on a broad national scale. Currently there are three basic planning strategies. Each is directed at a different policy issue within the institutes (as most higher education institutions are called). The issues include the mission or purpose, the admissions policy, and the specified numbers of specialized degrees conferred. These topics and how they are dealt with in the Soviet Union should be of special interest to colleges and universities in South Carolina who are presently struggling with issues of central control of admissions as spelled out in a curriculum and planning document called "The Cutting Edge" approved in October, 1987 by the South Carolina Commission on Higher Education.

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The Planning Methods

Soviet planning is based on five-year schedules and is now in the twelfth five-year plan; 1988 is the third year of the latest plan. Quantitative and qualitative information are gleaned from education and economic sectors for future planning in higher education. This information is used in the following planning methods as described by Eliutin.

The *normative method* of planning was developed to incorporate demographic data and information to determine the number of specialists needed for a particular size of the population. For instance, Gosplan would determine the production of medical doctors per 10,000 inhabitants, taking into account the number of operating hospitals and medical equipment (Eluiutin,1985, 9-10, pp. 64-65).

South Carolina's medical schools use similar information to determine the number of medical doctors to be trained in a given year. The Soviet decisions, however, are governmentally dictated while the policies of medical schools in South Carolina are set by the schools themselves with relatively little intrusion on the part of governmental agencies. Institutional autonomy is quite important and greatly contributes to their success in providing adequate medical coverage for South Carolina.

The *saturation method* of higher education planning was developed to determine long ra admissions practices for technical specialists. Gosplan considers this to be a historical first in Communist higher education planning. Admission to specialized degree programs such as metallurgical engineering, is tied to Soviet economic indices such as the anticipated volume of production, the expected productivity of labor, the ideal

number of specialists needed in relation to the total number of workers, and the planned increment of workers in a specific five-year plan (Eliutin, 1985, 9-10, p. 64).

The saturation method has a far reaching impact upon those seeking admission to the institutes. A student who is quite capable of becoming a metallurgical engineer may be forced into another occupational level or area because the national quota of metallurgical engineers has been reached. One explanation is that Soviet students can apply to one institute per year for acceptance and that all engineering positions are filled so the student's desires cannot be accommodated. This student would, however, have a choice in other engineering fields at this institute.

Citizens of South Carolina are fortunate for nationwide and statewide they have the option to apply to as many two and four year higher education institutions as they wish. They also have a wide choice of subject areas in which to major and the choice of major is the student's decision which is not dictated by a central planning agency. However, current efforts to remove developmental programs from the four-year institutions could possibly signal the beginnings of certain state higher education coordinating agencies who would limit this access based on aptitude criteria.

The third Soviet planning model is the *list of positions method*. This plan is used to develop new curriculums and degree structures to meet future specialist needs for the culture and economy. By narrowly focusing on specialist education Gosplan closely defines how the institutes training programs will insure the proper number of specialists for anticipated technological advances. Forecasts of specialist needs using the list of Positions Method often reach well into succeeding five-year plans (Eliutin, 1985, 9-10, pp. 64-65). An example could be found in the projected training needs of computer specialists. Soviet planning would project what they believe their technological advances will be and shape specialist training to provide the proper numbers forecast. One specific problem with this planning process is the number of cadres produced based on technologies anticipated by the next five-year plan. These cadres may perform well during the five-year plan for which their training was developed, however, once this technology becomes outdated the education system becomes involved in massive retraining projects. It has occurred that once training was completed, the existing technologies were already obsolete. This has caused, "...irrational utilization of the graduates of institutions of higher education, some of whom waste the knowledge they have acquired..." (Eliutin, 1985, 9-10, p. 74).

In South Carolina our higher education system, especially the technical education schools, retrain workers whose skills have become outdated. While the State's economy and higher education system is not totally governmentally controlled there appears to be a correct balance at present. If more controls are permitted, especially central governing controls by state agencies, it could be that less proper utilization of faculty, staff, and facilities may result. For example, the present technical education centers have the authority and autonomy to meet their respective community demands. With greater central state control their responsiveness might be hampered by increased bureaucratic regulations.

Admissions and Class Structure

Institute admissions requirements are stringent and only 12% of Soviet youth are given the opportunity to attend an institute compared to 50% in the United States (Zajda, 1984). This is quite significant. In 1977, of five million students who graduated from Soviet general secondary schools, 50% had the desire to enter an institute (Zajda, 1979). This clearly illustrates how sweeping are the effects of planning methods. About 88% of Soviet students will either enter the labor force or attend vocational schools. Many are obviously talented but are denied higher education when they graduate from secondary school. This information illuminates a gross inequity of educational career choice and thwarted ambitions as the *pyramid of demands* exhibits (Zajda, 1979).

Soviet higher education ensures professional status upon graduates and therefore pupil aspiration for admittance is very high. Those not admitted to higher schools are relegated to working status in industry. According to the previously discussed planning models (the saturation method, the normative method, and list of positions method). Soviet manpower needs dictate only a small percentage of professionals are needed, therefore, the majority of secondary school graduates must enter the labor or agricultural work force. The elite 12% of secondary school graduates will enter the professional arena.

Information from Gosplan indicates a strong desire among students to become members of the intelligentsia and appears to contradict Soviet claims of being a homogeneous or classless society. Party doctrine denies social or class stratification but

it does exist in labor classification. Defined classes of labor in the Soviet economy can be seen in the table below (Zajda, 1984).

Table 2

Labor Class	% of societal composition				% represented in Higher Education Institutes	
	1982	*1978*	*1971*	*(1939)*	*1971*	*(1939)*
Intelligensia	25.1	23.1	22.7	(17.7)	53.1	(42.2)
Workers	60.0	61.8	56.8	(32.5)	36.2	(33.9)
Peasants	14.9	15.1	20.5	(47.2)	10.7	(16.1)

Children of the intelligentsia whose parents hold positions usually requiring higher education have historically comprised about 53% of the students attending higher education institutions. Most revealing is that the intelligentsia have comprised only 17.7% to 25.1% of the population over the last 43 years. Shubkin (cited in Zajda, 1979, p. 415) explains that in the Soviet system there was a positive relationship between the social status of parents and the vocational orientation of their offspring. He also found that career aspirations of many students did not correspond to the needs of the Soviet economy.

In South Carolina, those who propose revised state admissions policies believe the open door policy of the technical colleges will provide access to all who aspire to a baccalaureate degree. Cohen and Brawer (1982) tell us 80% of full time entering freshmen at two-year colleges aspire to transfer to four year colleges and earn a bachelor's degree (p.46). On the surface this bears well for the three-tiered system. Of significance is that in reality, at the most, an average of 9.9% of these freshmen will transfer (Cohen & Brawer, 1982, p.302). A dismal portrait is painted for the well intentioned and highly motivated potential transfer student. From the statistics cited, it appears their original goals to transfer become sidetracked resulting in a loss that affects the intellectual and economic resources of South Carolina.

A decline in minority university representation could develop if a three-tiered mandatory admissions policy is instituted in South Carolina based on SAT scores. It was found in a 1987 study at the University of South Carolina that between 1976 and 1979 entering Black students scored an average of 100 points less on the SAT than entering White students (Welsh, Conway & West, p.8). Many presently admissible minorities who wish to enter at the university level would be disqualified from admission under recent proposals. The possibility exists that a more pronounced stratification along social and racial lines would develop in the colleges and universities. Similar discriminatory results occur in the U.S.S.R. institutes among students in the three labor classifications mentioned earlier.

Career choice and institute admission are significant aspects of gender representation in higher education. To qualify for higher school training one must pass stringent achievement examinations and interviews. It is an elitist system of higher education and women are currently the most successful in gaining access. They represent 51% of the student body at higher education institutions. This is 7% more than was the case in the 1965-66 school year (Bolotin, 1980). Men seem to opt for employment within the industrial sector at a faster rate than women. This is certainly influenced by the communist propaganda which elevates the worker and causes a certain number of men who would qualify for admissions to automatically exclude themselves.

Soviet men and women are free to choose career fields in higher education, however, there are certain occupations in which women are more heavily represented. These may be seen as traditionally female as indicated by demographic studies. Bolotin states that, "...girls constitute...the majority of the students entering higher education institutions specializing in medicine, pedagogy, economics, and law" (1980, pp. 70-71). The following table will more fully illustrate the traditional career choices of men and women. Constructed by Seymour Rosen (1980, p. 40), a specialist in comparative education, there develops a clear picture concerning the gender composition of Soviet higher education enrollment by major fields.

Table 3
Women students as percent of total enrollment in undergraduate higher education, by major fields: 1970-71 and 1977-78

Major Field	1970-71	1977-78
Women as percent of total enrollment	49	51
Women as percent of total students in:		
Industry, construction, transport, and communications	38	34
Agriculture	30	34
Economics and law	60	64
Health, Physical culture, and sport	56	57
Education, art, and cinematography	66	68

An interesting pattern emerges from this information. For those men who do not opt for higher school training, occupational decisions lean towards industry and agriculture. For those men who do opt for higher school training, occupational decisions also lean towards industry and agriculture but in white collar positions. About 850,000 degrees are conferred annually in the Soviet Union to the men and women who complete institute requirements (Eliutin, 1986). It will be interesting to see what the the future holds for the male/female ratio of higher school graduates, especially in the context of occupational choices. Changes could indicate a cultural shift in a society which is governmentally structured.

Present Trends: What to Look For

The XXVII Communist Party of Soviet Union Congress developed a draft titled, "Basic Directions for the Restructuring of the Country's Higher and Secondary Special Education" ("Restructuring higher education", 1986).
This document states that reforms in entrance examinations, student self-government, curriculum, and better cooperation between higher education institutes and industry should help to improve Soviet education and economic productivity. It is hoped through these reforms a better prepared professional will emerge, which in turn will translate to a more efficient and productive economy and labor work force.

Mentioned in another Pravda editorial is "the system of retraining scientific personnel is in need of improvement ." ("For our every step", 1987). If this effort is sustained, a much stronger scientific labor force should emerge. We may look for a concentrated impetus in retraining of cadres.

These trends appear to be efforts to improve upon former planning and education processes. For further study, it should be of interest to determine how these directions will affect the 13th Five-Year Plan. Will these new efforts truly improve the quality of Soviet higher education and in turn spur economic productivity? Keeping abreast of Soviet restructuring efforts should provide insights into class representation, technological advances, defense capabilities, economic trends and especially shifts in the political climate.

In South Carolina we may look for continued efforts towards greater state control in what have traditionally been areas of institutional autonomy. The rationale is for public accountability of educational and fiscal processes. While many persons associated with higher education would value changes it appears prudent to evaluate at greater length the effects of proposed legislation. Of special concern should be the impact on the rising secondary school population. Would the pending proposals help and promote these students or thwart the ambitions of our most precious resource?

Summary

There are specific planning methods which regulate higher school admissions and economic sectors of the Soviet society. These plans are developed by Gosplan and are the saturation method, list of positions method and normative method.

Because the planning methods dictate admissions policy it is not always possible for the Soviet student to study in their preferred subject. The student may be relegated to second or third choices as illustrated by the *pyramid of demands*. Also, once trained, economic activity may have out-dated the field or a surplus of specialists may have flooded the labor force. Finding the acquired skills of little use would possibly place the new worker in occupational activities below personal capabilities.

Higher school admissions indicate a larger representation of those children coming from the intelligentsia as compared to workers and peasants. From among these students, women presently represent 51% of the higher school student body. Females normally enter the disciplines of medicine, law, economics, and pedagogy. Men normally enter the industrial and agricultural disciplines.

The Soviet system of education is a massive organization which has accomplished much in the past seventy-five years. It has increased the literacy rate from 25% of the population in 1917 to about 90% today (Onushkin & Zubkov, 1982). South Carolina's educators would do well to study this credible Soviet national structure. From it we might learn to avoid the weaknesses of centralized state control and the limits it places on freedom of choice and access. We may also better learn to avoid increased stratification along racial and social lines and more carefully consider new educational proposals before adoption. Most importantly, we might learn from the strengths that our present system of higher education exhibits and build upon these.

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Selecting Student Staff: The Resident Advisor

Melani M. Grecu

Student leaders and student employees have a substantial impact on the perceptions students have of their campus environment and, therefore, influence the personal and academic success of their peers. College and university administrators often tap into these two subgroups, student leaders and student employees, to gauge reactions to changes in the campus environment and to solicit input for administrative decision making. Student leaders and student employees serve as institutional representatives of their peers by providing a communication link between the students and the professional staff. The degree to which students support or adapt to change in the campus environment is largely dependent upon the accuracy of this communication link.

Resident Advisors (RAs) are in a position to be powerful boundary spanners. They represent the student's perspective to administration and conversely, the administration's perspective to the student. Resident Advisors are both student leaders and student employees. From a resident's perspective, the quality of the university's residence life program is often reflected in the quality of the RA staff. The selection of a supportive and committed RA staff should be one of the highest priorities of a university residence life program.

At the University of South Carolina - Columbia, the Department of Resident Student Development and Off Campus Student Services is responsible for the selection, training, and supervision of the RA staff. The Department utilizes a selection process that is specifically designed to identify qualified candidates who can accurately represent the student's perspective to administrators, while demonstrating support for the goals of the Department, the Division of Student Affairs, and the University. Criteria for the successful RA are specified in the Job Description and are based on the goals of the Department, the Division of Student Affairs and the Institution's 15 year plan. The consistency that results from such an intentional design clearly contributes to the success and distinction of this selection process. The Job Description establishes qualifications and characteristics that are used in the assessment of each candidate. All reference and evaluation forms require specific assessment of the candidate based on this established criteria. Additionally, the Job Description defines the RA job responsiblities and establishes clear staff expectations that are consistent with the stated goals of the department and the institution. The lack of clearly defined expectations leads to inconsistencies between the stated goals and actual performance of the RA staff. Such inconsistencies lead to confusion, frustration, disenchantment, and sometimes failure for individual students.

The selection process begins with recruitment efforts that are designed to attract a qualified candidate pool. Recruitment materials are developed with the job criteria in mind, reflecting the position's responsibilities and benefits. A student's decision to apply is based on an accurate understanding of the RA job expectations and commitment to the implied and stated goals. The application process is open to all students meeting the minimum requirements. Current RAs are asked to nominate candidates who have demonstrated potential for leadership. These nominees are sent a recruitment letter and application packet. Additionally, applications are made available at several campus locations, including the University Career Center, residence hall desks and housing offices. The Department of Resident Student Development and Off Campus Student Services generally recruits 60 candidates for approximately 12 vacancies in the spring semester, and 225 candidates for approximately 50 vacancies in the fall semester.

Once applications are in, a mandatory meeting of all candidates is held to provide additional information about the position and the selection process. The job description provides the basic content of this meeting. Professional staff members serve as facilitators and provide concrete examples of the RA's inter-

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actions with students, student groups and staff. The candidates are divided into smaller groups of approximately 6-10 students. Each group is assigned a specific date, time, and location for the next phase of selection, Group Process.

During Group Process, each of the small groups meet for approximately four to five hours on a Saturday or Sunday. A Residence Hall Director and two current RAs facilitate a series of activities designed to; 1) provide more specific information about the position; 2) assess each candidate's ability based on the job criteria; and 3) demonstrate the developmental goals of the department. The group process is, in fact, the initial step in the RA training program. At the end of the group process candidates sign up for two interviews - one with the Residence Hall Director and one with the two RAs who facilitated the group process. These interviews provide the current staff with the opportunity to further explore their observations and reactions to the candidates outside of the group setting. Evaluations of the candidates are based on both the group process and the individual interviews. The evaluation forms require the staff to assess the candidates in each area of the established job criteria. The University's grading system (A,B,C,D,F) is the basis of assessment. Using this common scale is particularly helpful in increasing consistency in evaluation among different groups. Training sessions for participating staff are conducted prior to the selection process and are part of the in-service training program.

Each applicant's evaluations and references are then compared to the candidate pool as a whole. A group of the most qualified candidates is established based on the number of vacancies. Residence Hall Directors invite candidates who indicated an interest in their building to interview for specific building placement. Final placement decisions are based on a match between an individual candidate's strengths and the needs of a particular floor.

This selection process obviously requires a large time commitment from staff members at all levels. Current staff members value the opportunity for input into the process and develop higher levels of interpersonal communication skills. The initial investment of time in selecting quality staff members has a significant positive impact on every aspect of the residence life program. Maintaining a student staff that is not supportive of departmental and institutional goals negatively effects students' perceptions of their college experiences. This well integrated selection process based on intentional student development and enhances the opportunity for realizing institutional goals will be realized.

RESIDENT ADVISOR JOB DESCRIPTION

I. General Description

A Resident Advisor (RA) is a staff member of the Department of Resident Student Development and Off-Campus Student Services, responsible for a given area or floor of a given residence hall. Principal RA duties involve four areas of responsibility: Student Development, Community Development, Floor Management/Administration and Building /Departmental Responsibilities.

II. Qualifications

A Resident Advisor must have a minimum of two semesters of college work. He/she must be a full-time student with at least a 2.25 GPR. He/she must have previously lived in a residence hall or have had equivalent experience.

III. Areas of Responsibility

The following indicates primary duties in the four areas of responsibility. These are cited as examples only. It is not intended or possible to list all-inclusive duties.

<u>Student Development</u>

1. One of the RAs principle duties will be serving in the capacity of an advisor and counselor. To do this, the RA must develop a personal relationship with residents on his/her floor. The RA shows interest and concern for each resident on a daily basis, and should encourage involvement in floor, residence hall and campus-wide activities.

2. An RA refers any counseling problems (personal, academic or crisis oriented) beyond their limitations to appropriate sources. This involves getting to know the resources available on campus in addition to the Resident Student Development Staff.

3. An RA addresses misconduct and provides appropriate disciplinary counseling to inappropriate actions. This will include bringing violations of regulations to the attention of the Resident Student Development Staff.

4. An RA serves as a role model by supporting and coordinating efforts of the Residence Hall Government and the Residence Hall Staff in carrying out policies to promote the general welfare of students. This involves the support of University rules and regulations in words and actions.

Community Development

1. One of the requirements of an RA is to provide programs to meet the needs of his/her residents. Programming is to be done on the eight areas of the Wellness model. These areas include: social, physical, emotional, community service, intellectual, environmental, spiritual, and occupational.

2. An RA involves students in planning, implementing and publicizing programs on his/her residence hall.

3. An RA supports the Residence Hall Government by attendance and participation in scheduled meetings and functions, and by communication of the purpose and functions of the government to the residents. The RA should encourage his/her resident's participation in the government's programs.

4. An RA should be knowledgeable of the Residence Hall Association (RHA). He/she should promote RHA programs and should encourage participation in RHA and its sponsored activities.

5. An RA keeps students informed of University activities and policies through posted notices, hall meetings, and individual contact.

Floor Management and Administration

1. Assistance in performing certain administrative duties as deemed necessary by University Housing Services and Resident Student Development is a responsibility of an RA. These duties may include completing room rosters, distribution of memos, incident reports and check-in/check-out procedures. This will involve remaining in the building until all residents vacate the area before he/she may leave during vacation periods and returning early to help open buildings after vacation periods.

2. An RA should maintain a good working relationship with the Area Manager and should report all maintenance problems and deficiencies, as well as damages or loss of University property. He/she should follow-up on all reported problems.

3. Writing Incident Reports concerning any irregularities is also a duty of an RA. This assists in keeping the RHD apprised of any problems occurring on the RA's floor. Incident reports must be submitted within 24 hours of the incident to the RHD.

Building/Departmental

1. An RA will be required to assist in duty coverage with other RAs in the building/area. During "on-duty" time, the RA is required to stay in his/her room except when completing rounds or confronting any problems.

2. An RA should immediately report any unusual incidents or disturbances, including violations of University rules and regulations to the RHD, including incidents which have already been resolved.

3. An RA must regularly and actively participate in scheduled meetings and on-going development activities with the staff.

4. An RA may be required to cover desk-duty on a temporary basis at certain key times during the year.

5. An RA must maintain a positive working relationship with the Resident Student Development Central Staff.

6. An RA participates in evaluations of his/her own performance and the performance of the RHD.

7. An RA must participate in staff selection as needed, including RAs and RHDs.

8. An RA is to report to the RHD regularly, and assumes the duties of an RA under the direct supervision of the RHD. He/she is to cooperate with the RHD and should fulfill all duties listed in this job description and all other duties which the RHD and/or the appropriate Associate/Assistant Director may assign.

IV. Working Conditions

— Realizes his/her services may be needed at any time. Accessibility and availability are extremely important in performing an RA's duties.

— Understands that the period of employment begins with pre-semester training and concludes at noon on the day following the close of the building at the end of each semester.

— First semester RAs will begin and complete EDHE 570.

— Agrees to accept no additional employment on or off campus during the first semester as an RA. Some minimal outside employment may be allowed for returning RAs, if first approved by their RHD and the appropriate Associate/Assistant Director.

— Must maintain a cumulative GPR of 2.25.

— Must sign-up and occupy a single furnished room, following sign-up procedures as outlined by University Housing Services for resident students.

— Accepts responsibility for any equipment issued by the University during his/her term of employment, and will replace or pay damages for loss of any item including keys or manual.

— Realizes job assignment may be changed by the Associate/Assistant Director. Such changes would be made in the best interest of a working situation and/or individual.

V. Remuneration

— RAs receive a $ 10.00 increment per month after completing the first academic year of employment.

— RAs receive a private room with a 50% reduction in housing costs.

— RAs receive a 25% reduction on meal plans.

The RA's salary is determined by the number of residents on his/her floor or area, and by the length of employment.

Number of Students	Salary/Month
Up to 40 residents	$ 70.00
41 - 55 residents	80.00
56 - 75 residents	90.00
76 residents and above	100.00

The Role Of The University In A Technological Age

Gerald R. Roys

Editors' Note: At the time this journal went to press, the University of South Carolina was preparing for the installation of a state of the art supercomputer. The two-phase venture between the University and Perceptics Corporation will consist of installation in early 1988 of the Gemini supercomputer, terminals, network components, and specialized peripherals. During 1989 the second phase of the project will be completed when an even more powerful computer is installed. According to President James B. Holderman, "This will make the Columbia campus the hub of the most comprehensive statewide supercomputer initiative in the nation as additional smaller supercomputers are acquired for major University of South Carolina departments, other higher education institutions and state agencies."

The revolutionary progress in science, technology and electronics which marked the second half of the twentieth century has, in one way or another, affected nearly every aspect of human life. This geometric growth of technology has vastly expanded the frontiers of knowledge, opened up whole new fields of endeavor, and markedly altered individual life styles and expectations. Nowhere is this expansion more notable than in the field of computers where today's supercomputer becomes tomorrow's standard as new and even more capable systems are developed. This ever-expanding technology, while seen by some as the ultimate solution to many of the world's ills and problems, has been seen by others as a self-generating force, unguided and uncontrolled, which threatens eventually to dehumanize mankind. These disparate positions as well as the views of many others who fall somewhere along the continuum between these extremes, have raised considerable debate as to the normative role of technology in the future of human society. Perhaps nowhere is this debate more intense and searching as in the area of higher education.

Today's universities and colleges are faced, on the one hand, with the challenge of preparing young people for a productive and rewarding life in a technological age; and on the other hand with the time honored tradition of developing the whole person through a liberal-humanistic curriculum. Many universities and colleges are or will be facing serious decisions as how to better allocate scholastic time between a technological, career or occupationally focused curriculum, and the traditional liberal-humanistic studies. Four questions should be considered in any such deliberations:

1. Should the university or college education prepare individuals for life or for a specific career?
2. Can science and technology be effectively taught without a foundation in the humanities and social sciences?
3. Are science and technology, and liberal arts education indeed "two cultures" (as discussed by C.P. Snow) somehow unreconcilable and separate?
4. What should be the role of the modern university in a technological age?

The debate regarding the orientation of undergraduate curricula, be it career-professional or life and self-fulfillment directed, is not a new one. Indeed, this debate has continued unabated since the turn of the century. The technology has not created this debate, but rather has added new dimensions and urgency to it. In the past, few universities, and even fewer disciplines, were able to prepare students in more than the basic fundamentals, an introduction if you will, to specific career and occupational fields.

The current pace of technological change makes this task even more complicated. The pressure to maintain currency in the various fields of science and technology seriously strains the university's financial and human resources, and a more concerted effort to keep pace with the pressures of change could create considerable personnel turbulence. The university

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would find itself in a bitter and costly competition for the available expertise, which few universities could long afford, and which would be out of the question for most smaller colleges. Further, the amount of time required to develop a fully qualified graduate would necessitate a very narrowly focused course of study, and this, in turn, could produce a very narrowly focused individual.

Among the many human promises of technology are the increase in life expectancy, the creation of more leisure time and the general rise of individual living standards. Among the potential threats posed by an ever changing technology is the potential for human obsolescence. Both these promises and threats tend to indicate that today's college and university graduate cannot be narrowly focused, but rather should be prepared to face a world of constant change, to learn and to adapt to new and perhaps unrelated skills, and to develop a variety of interests for self-fulfillment and productivity.

It has been argued that industry seeks university graduates trained and proficient in the latest technology and if universities cannot provide them, industry will train their own. Many industries do exactly that, since the peculiarities and nuances of each industry's technology cannot be included in any single university curriculum. It is noteworthy, however, that those whom industry chooses to train are, for the most part, college and university graduates grounded in the fundamentals and conversant in the language of both technology and life. Further, industry seeks managers and leaders for the future; persons equipped to tackle the human, material and organizational problems, often quite unrelated to technology.

Technological change has accelerated the pace of life and markedly altered its style, but this acceleration has, in at least some segments of society, resulted in uneasiness, dislocation and a sense of alienation. These manifestations have, in turn, contributed to growing distrust of authority, government and laws, and to a rise in anti-social behavior. To face and hopefully to correct these trends requires training on the part of college and university graduates in leadership and in responsible citizenship. It requires an understanding of human values, a sense of human dignity, and a respect for diversity among our fellow citizens. Such training and understanding comes, in large measure from a thorough grounding in the humanities and social sciences. The university can ill-afford to abrogate its responsibility to society and to the contrary to train and develop the leaders for the future.

Technology is developed by people. It is not an autonomous force. Technology, therefore, becomes uncontrolled and uncontrollable only when it is divorced from human and societal values. Society and the political process determine the range of ethical feasibility, and by so doing the range of technological desirability. The argument that science and technology must, by necessity, be value free, is in many respects spurious. Certain fundamental values and consequences must always be clearly and carefully considered. It remains the responsibility of the university, in the development of its curricula, to ensure that its graduates have at minimum received the basic tools with which to make considered value judgments. It is through the application of values and sober consideration of consequences that man can and must control technology.

The often enunciated antithesis between a technical and liberal-humanistic education is perhaps more myth than fact. It is difficult to imagine an adequate preparation for technology that is not also liberal, or a liberal education which ignores technology. To a large degree our educational system created the two cultures C.P. Snow has spoken and written about, and parochial interests and disciplinary imperatives have maintained the division. Technical and liberal education are not mutually exclusive. Indeed, each forms a basic ingredient of the other. Recognizing the interaction for these two cultures, their interrelationship and indivisibility, will become even more imperative in the decades to come. The new university and college graduate will have to deal with complex problems at the boundaries where society and technology interact with one another. The new professionals will have to be keenly aware not only of the benefits but also of the consequences and impacts of technological development. This will require individuals capable of grasping the technological, economic, social, ethical and aesthetic consequences of proposed projects and developments.

In summarizing the four questions originally posed, certain conclusions can be drawn:

1. Should the university or college education prepare individuals for life, or for specific careers? The modern university cannot afford to ignore technology and career orientation. It cannot, on the other hand, abandon its mission to prepare its students for life and for responsible citizenship. It must find a way to do both.
2. Can science and technology be effectively taught without a foundation in the humanities and social sciences? Technology properly describes means, while social science and humanities describe ends or goals. To abandon one for the other would lead to making ends and means synonymous, or to setting goals without the means for their achievement.
3. Are science and technology, and liberal education indeed two cultures somehow unreconcilable and separate? No. The modern university must evaluate its curricula and explore its organization. It must break down artificially erected barriers, and initiate programs to integrate the basic fundamentals of technology and the liberal arts in its undergraduate programs.
4. What should be the role of the modern university in a technological age? This question cannot be easily answered, but deserves considerable thought, study and planning. The modern university cannot stand still in a world of rapid change. If it does, it will be buffeted by outside forces, and change will be enforced by the whims and fads of the outside world. The university must stay attuned to the needs of its constituencies, its environment and society as a whole. It must prepare and plan for orderly, proactive change. Ideally, the university will be in the forefront of change, an authoritative example of how technology and society can coexist, and training a generation of leaders prepared for

for career and public services in a technological age. Such leaders must be equipped to harness and control technology for the benefit of all mankind.

Articulating and planning the role of the university in a technological age is one of the major challenges that must be met by the university leadership and the entire university community in this decade.

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AIDS and Ethics on the College Campus

Jodi A. Raybuck

The perplexing epidemic of AIDS has left many medical experts frustrated and confused in their efforts to prevent and how to cure the disease. The social dilemmas of this disease are equally as perplexing and those involved in student affairs are beginning to feel their impact. The student affairs professional can not ignore the difficult questions that will surface when an AIDS case is confirmed on campus. With current trends showing an increase of heterosexual transmission, we can not afford to continue to hope that *maybe we won't have that problem.*

As a graduate student in Student Personnel Administration with a Bachelor's degree in Nursing, I have watched the AIDS problem with great interest and deep concern. Having cared for AIDS patients in the hospital setting, I have been sensitized to the devastating effects of this disease on those whom it strikes. While the nursing profession has been forced to deal with the dilemmas of caring for these individuals, that day of reckoning has yet to reach student affairs professionals. It is encouraging that those in student affairs are becoming more aware of some of the issues that must be faced with AIDS because it is paramount that we think them through before we are required to do so. Being able to look at questions without the pressure of having to make snap decisions gives us a valuable advantage in making sound ethical decisions.

How does one think through ethical problems? Although we probably do it on a daily basis on a much smaller scale, most of us will admit that our experience in dealing with major moral and ethical questions is minimal. Roger Sullivan, a professor of Philosophy at the University of South Carolina , believes that we need to be taught to think ethically and make decisions that are moral and ethical, for this is a skill in which we usually receive no formal training. In his article published in Student Activities Programming (1981) Sullivan summarizes four moral norms to guide ethical decision making. Although they are not the only ones in existence, they can be used as valuable guidelines in our search for some of the answers to the questions that AIDS will pose.

Briefly, the four moral norms are: 1) Aristotle's moral norm; 2) the Golden Rule; 3) the categorical imperative; and 4) Utilitarianism. Aristotle's moral norm proposes that we should act as a morally good person would act, or model the behavior of those who are more experienced in dealing with ethical and moral decisions. The Golden Rule is one which we have all grown up with, *Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.* The categorical imperative, postulated by Immanuel Kant proposes that the only morally right decision is one that we can will everyone to follow. Kant explains this norm best when he says we should "always act in such a way that you treat everyone, yourself as well as others, as a center of dignity, and never simply as a means to satisfy your desires" (Sullivan, 1986). The last norm is Utilitarianism, identified by John Stuart Mill. Mill says ethical decisions should be made by choosing the alternative that will produce the greatest amount of happiness for the largest number of people. In other words, the common good outweighs the good of the individual. Keeping those guidelines in mind, let us consider the following cases.

Case 1

Mark S., an 18 year old hemophiliac hás applied for admission to your institution. He is an honor student with outstanding SAT scores. He also has developed AIDS related complex (ARC), a condition caused by exposure to the AIDS virus in which the patient has tested positive for AIDS. He is exhibiting symptoms that are less severe than full blown AIDS, and include diarrhea, weight loss and a decreased resistance to infection. The American College Health Association (Keeling,1986) states that so far,

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only a minority of people with ARC have progressed to have full-blown AIDS. ACHA also states that some of these patients get better with no treatment, and others have stayed the same for long periods of time.

Mark's situation would present a dilemma for the Director of Admissions. Initially, the question would be, should Mark be admitted to the institution? Because there is no precedent for a situation like this, we may look to the underlying code of ethics for Admissions. Packwood (1977) tells us that while the code of ethics for admissions stresses common sense and honesty in college-applicant communication, he clarifies those terms by quoting Woodward (cited in Packwood, 1977) who said,"If the economic survival of the institution becomes more important than the educational guidance of the student, the practice in question is probably unethical."

Packwood also states that legally, institutions do not have the right to discriminate on the basis of race or creed. Once again, this may not be too helpful in making decisions about Mark's enrollment. He certainly meets the entrance requirements and under different circumstances would be a student that you, as an admissions director, would be eager to admit. How will Mark's admission to your institution affect future enrollments? As an admissions professional, you have the obligation to accurately represent your institution to those you recruit. If he is admitted, are you obligated to inform future applicants?

To sort through these questions, it is imperative that we be well versed on the most recent information available about AIDS. Given that a majority of people with ARC have thusfar exhibited only minor clinical symptoms, chances are that with medical supervision, Mark will successfully complete his education. However, if we refer back to our four moral norms, we may come up with opposing views of what to do.

The Golden Rule would probably guide us toward maintaining the rights of the individual, because it would be difficult to reconcile ourselves to the thought of being denied access to an education if we were sick. If we view this in the utilitarian perspective, we may decide that we have the obligation to deny admission because we want to protect those who are well and attending the institution. This mode of thinking was exhibited recently by the Citadel in their decision to mandate testing for all applicants, and to possibly deny admission to those who have been exposed to the AIDS virus ("Citadel will start," 1987). As you can see, there are no easy answers!

Case 2

Michael M. is a 27 year old student in the residency program in Dentistry who has a past history of IV drug abuse. He received treatment, and is now drug-free. As he approaches the end of his residency, he seeks the help of the University's College of Dentistry Placement Office in locating a group practice to enter. He confides in the placement counselor that he has tested positive for the AIDS virus, meaning he has been exposed, has developed antibodies to the virus, and is considered to be infectious.

The Placement Office serves as a link between students and prospective employers and its professionals provide a valuable service to both. Certainly placing a student will benefit the University in future alumni donations, but viewing this case from the standpoint of the placement counselor will probably pose some questions. First, does the counselor have a *duty to warn* potential employers about Michael's seropositivity (positive AIDS test), especially given the nature of his profession? If the counselor does, this would violate the confidentiality of the information and would also violate Michael's rights. What, however, if the dental group he is placed with finds out at a later date that Michael has had a positive test and the counselor was aware of it? It will most certainly diminish the trust that this particular group, as well as their colleagues, place in that School of Dentistry's Placement Office. And considering the worst scenario, what if one of Michael's patients becomes infected (i.e., if he cuts himself and bleeds into an open lesion)? Admittedly, this is far-fetched, given what we know about transmission, but where would that leave the Placement Office in terms of liability?

Another facet to consider, as sad as it seems, is that we all hold personal biases that are difficult from which to separate ourselves. If the counselor is biased against Michael because he contracted the virus through IV drug abuse, it is quite possible that he or she will be less than enthusiastic in helping Michael find a dental group to join. This brings us to an important point: in the field of student affairs, we are all taught to be ever-aware of our values and biases, and not to let them affect our professional judgement. This will become more apparent as we are faced with decisions surrounding the AIDS disease. If we follow the teachings of Immanuel Kant, the categorical imperative tells us that we should always act such that we treat everyone equitably and with dignity, and never to fulfill our own needs. This moral norm would then guide us to put our biases aside when trying to place Michael.

This case alerts us to the fact that not only are we going to be dealing with liability in the way we treat students, but we will be held accountable by the general public. Compounded with the consideration of the student as a human being with rights and feelings, it is evident that student affairs professionals will quickly find themselves between a rock and a hard place if they must make decisions rapidly and without forethought.

Case 3

Sara L. is a 28 year old non-traditional student who entered school after being divorced from a man who admitted to being a bi-sexual after they were wed. She has been in school for two years and is planning on becoming a nurse. Sara has been diagnosed as having full blown AIDS. Her immune system is depressed and she has become susceptible to infection. Despite the danger that exposure to infections of her patients might

pose, she is insistent on following through with her career plans.

Let's view this case a little differently; instead of considering the implications of Sara infecting the patients (a fear that to this date is unfounded), what about the patients infecting Sara? Clearly, exposure to the spectrum of viruses and bacteria present in any hospital setting could be deadly to this student, but she has voiced the willingness to take that risk to realize her career goals. No longer do institutions of higher learning assume the *in loco parentis* role and Sarah is certainly old enough to make her own decisions. How can we deny her the right to pursue whatever career she chooses and how can we let her enter a situation that is probably hazardous to her health?

If one looks at a college catalog, he or she can find several occupations that could be potentially dangerous to one's health; nursing, with the wide exposure to infectious diseases could be hazardous even to a *healthy* person, as could chemistry and chemical engineering, with exposure to combustible or toxic chemicals, nuclear engineering, or radiation technology. In the category of co-curricular activities, consider parachuting or mountain climbing clubs, gymnastics, and most assuredly football and other contact sports. Even intramurals can be potentially dangerous, yet students are allowed to participate if they sign a release form.

Of course these situations aren't as glaring as Sara's scenario, but they are food for thought. It is difficult to discern where the burden of responsibility lies, because when students are injured in a University setting, oftentimes the institution is held responsible. In addition to liability considerations, in light of a recent case where the court intervened in a quadriplegic woman's attempt to have her feeding tube removed because she would starve, it is evident that society tends to impose its values on those who seek to place themselves in potentially fatal situations because death is so aversive to us (*Bouvia v. Superior Court*, 1986). This case is one which we may choose to apply Aristotle's norm, and attempt to model the ethical reasoning of one who has more experience in dealing with moral and ethical dilemmas than we do.

The brief discussion of these hypothetical cases reveals that AIDS will pose questions that will challenge the very foundation of our values and the way we think. The questions posed here are only a very small tip of the iceberg. For every discipline, every student, and every professional, new dilemmas will arise for which there is no precedent, and no easy solution. If we, as professionals, begin now to question our own beliefs, values, ideas, and reactions we will find ourselves more comfortable in the difficult decision making process that AIDS will provide us.

It is my belief that we owe it to ourselves and the students we serve to base our decisions not on our fears, but on current knowledge and proactive thought. As student affairs professionals we are expected to act reasonably, empathetically, and not only in the best interest of the student, but the institution as well. AIDS will serve as a catalyst to heighten our level of moral reasoning. Meeting the challenges it provides can only improve our profession.

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I Hated My Favorite Teachers

G. James Burns

Editors' Note: Jim Burns was honored by students in the College of Applied Professional Sciences in May of 1987 when he was selected as Distinguished Teacher of the Year. The Editorial Board asked Jim to reflect on some of the experiences that had influenced him in the very special way he approaches teaching students at the University of South Carolina.

When I started teaching in 1974, I had no idea what the experience would be like. As a graduate student, my motivation for teaching was the money that I would earn. Then, teaching was a means for me to survive. I did not realize how much my attitude would change toward teaching nor how much I would rely on my experiences with my former instructors.

My memories of former teachers were hazy until I discovered that I needed those *real* models who influenced my academic growth. Three of my professors at Shaw University immediately came to mind.

Dr. *Hardnose* was brash, abrasive, and absolutely heartless. She told us on the first day of our class in English Romantic Literature that she would take no less than C+ work from us. She also indicated that her job was to reach us and to not be our friend. She demanded that we not call her at home and said that she had no desire to speak with us outside of the classroom. **Dr. *Hardnose*** became one of my favorite hated teachers because she exhibited one very important element in her classroom - energy. Despite the fact that she hated us, she had a real love, knowledge, and enthusiasm for her subject matter. Her favorite poems—Shelley's *Ozymandias* and Wordsworth's *Ode: Intimations of Immortality from Recollections of Early Childhood*—became my favorite poems.

Prof. *Mellow* was warm, caring, and patient. His freshman composition class was as laid back as you would expect a 1960s English class to be. (No, we did not spend the semester making collages.) It seemed that we discussed every issue of 1969. He made me see the importance of making an English class relevant. He made assignments when he felt that we were ready to write. Because his class was so stimulating and exciting, we were always ready to react to an issue. His favorites—Ellison's *Invisible Man*, Jean Genet, and Motown music— also became my favorites.

Dr. *One Way - My Way* walked in our class on the first day and made the following announcement: "This semester I will teach you transformational grammar. You will use the textbook that I have chosen. You will consult no sources other than that textbook. You will write a term paper at the end of the semester. In that term paper, you will use only the notes that I have given you." I learned a great deal from **Dr. *One Way - My Way*** and his textbook, Thomas' *Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English* — became one of my most remembered .

These three teachers all displayed a love for teaching. They had very different styles, and I believe there is a bit of all three of them in my teaching. When my students in the College of Applied Professional Sciences recognized me for teaching last year, I realized that my students hate me for the very same reasons that I hated my blessed trinity.

G. James Burns is an Instructor in the College of Applied Professional Sciences and Associate Driector of the Provisional Year program at the University of South Carolina - Columbia.

Book Review

Understanding and Facilitating Adult Learning

Stephan D. Brookfield
Jossey-Bass Publishers,
1986

Dorothy S. Fidler

Adult students are flocking to our campuses across the country to challenge our teaching techniques and theories of adult learning. In his new book Stephan Brookfield, associate professor of adult and continuing education and associate director of the Center for Adult Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, critiques previous theories of adult learning, reviews the literature, and then presents a new concept of facilitating adult education.

In his examination of current approaches to adult learning, Brookfield analyzes the theory of andragogy as espoused by Knowles (1980) and Knowles and Associates (1984) and compares several variations of andragogy developed by other theorists of adult learning. These theorists define andragogy as a student-led process of learning which assumes that all adults are self-directed learners. Brookfield cites the familiar catechism of adult learning theory based on andragogy and notes that its assumption is false: not all adults are self-directed learners. In fact, he asserts that it is dangerous to prescribe one mode of learning for all. After reviewing Perry's (1970) work on stages of cognitive development, Brookfield lays out his own philosophy of adult education. His contribution is that he incorporates concepts from several cognitive developmental theories (Kohlberg, 1976; Piaget, 1928) into adult education to give us a richer, more textured philosophy of adult learning.

From the beginning Brookfield assumes that all adults are not at the same stage of cognitive development. He challenges us to facilitate our adult students' progress through levels of cognitive development toward critical reflection of conventional wisdom. Under his challenge the purpose of education is to empower adults to develop the emotional strength to challenge their own behaviors, values, and beliefs that are accepted uncritically by society. This is a difficult task for students and facilitators alike. Students often resist challenging the givens of society. In fact, true self-directed learners are the exception rather than the rule. The goal of education then is to promote critical reflection. This requires facilitating a process of learning rather than teaching content.

> Effective facilitation means that learners will be challenged to examine their previously held values, beliefs, and behaviors and will be confronted with ones that they may not want to consider. Such challenges and confrontations need not be done in an adversarial, combative, or threatening manner; indeed, the most effective facilitator is one who can encourage adults to consider rationally and carefully perspectives and interpretations of the world that diverge from those they already hold, without making those adults feel that they are being cajoled or threatened. This experience may preclude anxiety, but such anxiety should be accepted as a normal component of learning and not as something to be avoided at all costs for fear that learners will leave the group. (Brookfield, 1986, p. 286)

This concept of effective facilitation differs dramatically from the view of andragogy that we should serve only the felt needs of our students. Students rarely feel a need to learn the process of critical reflection. Their felt needs are often constrained by a narrow and unquestioned belief system.

Brookfield's philosophy of education centers on the notion of the adult's developing a sense of personal power, control, and autonomy derived from challenging suppositions and redefining values and relationships. It follows that the purpose of facilitation is to assist individuals to begin to exercise control over their own lives, their interpersonal relationships, and the social forums and structures within which they live.

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From this growing sense of empowerment and autonomy, individual and collective circumstances can be transformed. "Such a transformation will be manifest in renegotiations of personal relationships, attempts to recreate the conditions of work so as to imbue these with some sense of personal significance, and attempts to alter social forms" (Brookfield, 1986, p. 291).

Of course, this ideal is never fully achieved, but striving for this ideal is the purpose of true education. The challenge is clear! We must learn to facilitate our students through levels of cognitive development. To assist us, Brookfield devotes several chapters to techniques of achieving this ideal in both formal and informal settings and to methods of evaluating students' progress.

Brookfield never precisely states such but the fact is that his philosophy of reflective thinking is championed by liberal arts professors in classrooms of traditional-aged college students across the country. Thus Brookfield gives us a generic philosophy of education with specific applications for adults and comparisons to other theories of adult learning. He provides us with practical applications of the process of lifelong learning and suggests that addition of qualitative as well as quantitative methods of evaluating the process. His book makes a major innovative contribution to the discipline of adult learning.

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College

Ernest L. Boyer
Harper & Row Publishers
1987

Sandra G. Nelson

Something's agley in the ivory tower. Boyer's, *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America*, which many view as a companion piece to Boyer's acclaimed *High School*, presents a well-researched, valid survey of some hairline cracks which are manifesting themselves in the facade of a world-acclaimed system of higher education. It is somewhat troublesome that the Carnegie educational study found a continued divisiveness becoming the norm rather than the exception in such areas. For example, there has been a lessening of the intellectual and social climate of the undergraduate experience rather than an increase in fully serving the student body on 29 American campuses.

College was compiled by analyzing surveys of 4,500 students, 5,000 faculty members, more than 1,000 academic deans, prior studies, prior commissioned research, interviews and common sense. It addresses eight areas of potential pivotal points in the undergraduate arena which may prove to determine the direction this particular American experience will take. The areas explored are: the college dream, the vision, the academic program, the time factor, life on campus, patterns to the purposes, and, beyond the undergraduate experience.

The college dream defends the position that parents need and deserve correct information about the higher education their children ultimately experience. Based on the findings, Boyer says that as the competitive pressure for students grows, abuses are likely to increase while the quality of the information may decline. A small advertisement in the classified section of *The New York Times* reflects the temper of the times.

> "Wanted: an ex'd person for ADMISSION OFFICE. Must have good speaking voice, telephone skills and ability to close."

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The college vision addresses the goals or philosophies and the inclusion or exclusion of the student within its scope of operations. Research in this section underscores the importance of intensifying the student's social and academic integration in order for a greater commitment to the college.

More than half the faculty nationwide complained about the poor academic preparation of students in English, reading, writing and computing. This is not a new perception, but one that continues to feed the frustration, even cynicism, which is observable on virtually all campuses. Students, on the other hand, have actually come to view college as a time for remediation. Reports written in 1983 state that two out of every five freshmen said that going to college would *improve my reading and study skills*. The figure has doubled since 1973. Boyer recommends a careful assessment of all students' capabilities in reading and writing, then placing those who are not well prepared in an intensive, remedial course that meets daily during the first academic term. While offering credit, the course would not count toward graduation requirements. Drastic you say? Yes, but the problem is so serious that such measures are needed.

The core curriculum should stand on its own, but it does not because more and more students only want to get a job. Boyer concludes that general education needs a new breath of life. More coherence and integration is needed between a student's role in the *real world* versus the student's perceptions of that world.

Boyer explores the dichotomy of the two forces as each dilemma continues to pull the fabric of the undergraduate experience into a variation of what it has been historically. The question of course is, will it succeed? How is a professor to deal with a majority of students who do not spend the time and effort necessary to master difficult material, thus rendering the class time as a period of explanation rather than discussion? Conversely, the students do not feel obligated to do any work for someone they feel is bored stiff with the entire process. This

mixed response was reinforced by research, which suggests most students are satisfied with instruction, but the pressure to get good grades diminishes their enthusiasm. This dilemma, and others, needs to be addressed in American colleges.

Boyer states the undergraduate experience must be held together with something more than plumbing, grievances over the parking situation or various sports rallies. He maintains that the effectiveness of the undergraduate experience relates to the institution. It is directly linked to the time students spend on campus and to the quality of their campus life. It is also linked to the quality of their involvement in activities. It is not an exaggeration to say that students who get involved, stay enrolled. Thus, many colleges should seek ways to integrate the autonomous units in an effort to share activities, traditions and common values. Fostering a climate of loyalty strengthens the institution and ultimately the student; and indeed, creates a sense of the community that adds to a student's quality life experience.

Boyer says it is the tension between the individuality and community that is the central theme of *College*. It is within all the separations and divisions that points of common interest need to be forged, fostered and encouraged. The enthusiasm and striving of the faculty continues to make a difference by challenging and encouraging students. They represent models who are also in the process of discovering, and using, the gifts that each of us possess to bring value and service to the world.

The Closing of the American Mind

Allan Bloom
Simon and Schuster
1987

Jean Mahaffey

Allan Bloom hit a nerve within the current national and local debate on the curriculum in American colleges and universities. In *The Closing of the American Mind*, he offers a scapegoat to blame for the ills—campus politics of the 1960s—and a solution to remedy the problems—a return to the literature of the classical tradition. Both the cause and the solution appear to be simple and are certainly familiar to the American public, thus providing security within the debate. The security is false, however, because the current crisis in education began long before the 1960s and an industrial-technological society must provide a diversified educational system.

If Bloom controlled the higher education curriculum, all students would read and analyze the works of the philosopher-kings and political theorists. Bloom advocates a liberal education based on the great books which pose the questions of how to die, thus how to live; and what is the good, the beautiful, and the real. However, this curriculum alone is not designed to deal with the complexities resulting from scientific and technological advances of the twentieth century; contemporary economic, social, and political systems; and the urbanization of America. Futhermore, this curriculum completely overlooks the fact that American higher education is very diverse and admits and graduates large numbers of students with a wide range of skills, interests, and abilities.

Bloom argues, nonetheless, that a curriculum based on the literature of the classical tradition has for centuries prepared a person for various roles in life, simultaneously developing strength of mind, character, and spirit. He also argues that the current higher education curriculum which emphasizes vocationalism and professional specialties produces homogenized students whose minds are closed to the opportunities for choice. Therein lies the polarities of the debate.

The college curriculum always reflects the tensions between the individual and the group. The popularity of *The Closing of the American Mind* indicates that many people both inside and outside the academy are looking for alternatives to the current curriculum, particularly if those alternatives produce a different kind of graduate. Employers, national blue-ribbon study committees, and local faculties studying their own students are all seeing the need for college graduates to have more breadth of knowledge, more independent thought, and more precise communication skills, even if achieving these goals increases the traditional time span for attending college or decreases specialized training. The direction which current experiments with curriculum reform are taking should encourage Bloom.

Certainly the 1980s and probably the 1990s will be seen in higher education history as transitional decades for the curriculum. Curriculum reforms over the past 150 years have incorporated into the new curriculum the most creative and the least temporal aspects of the old, thus producing a cumulative influence. One can therefore expect the curriculum which evolves from the current debate to embrace wholly neither the classical tradition of the past nor the present relativism, but to reflect the best of both.

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A Wave of Reports on Higher Education: Bright Outlook or Stormy Forecast?

Manuel J. Justiz

Following the release of *A Nation at Risk*, the country turned its attention to the denigrating conditions in the American high schools, and as a result, higher education had been all but forgotten. As Director of the National Institute of Education, which sponsored *A Nation at Risk*, I felt that American higher education would be well served if a similar report could be prepared for higher education. Thus, in September 1983, I appointed seven distinguished members of the higher education community to serve as the Study Group on The Conditions Of Excellence In American Higher Education. Almost 12 months later, the Study Group released its report, *Involvement in Learning: Realizing the Potential of American Higher Education*. On Monday, October 22, 1984, Secretary of Education Terrell H. Bell and I held a national press conference at George Washington University's Marvin Center to release the report. In my remarks I referred to *Involvement in Learning* as a groundbreaking report because it was the first federally sponsored report in 15 years and also because it provided a blueprint for improving the conditions of American higher education. What I did not realize then was that this report would be the first of many others to follow on higher education. Soon thereafter, the National Endowment for the Humanities and the Association of American Colleges also released a report. Over time, it became apparent that all three reports shared a common agenda as to the issues, challenges and problems of American higher education.

Involvement in Learning turned the spotlight of national attention on community colleges, colleges and universities. The *Fact Sheet*, prepared by the U.S. Department of Education for the press conference, stated that the American system of higher education was the largest and most diverse in the world. America's higher education system encompasses nearly 3,300 institutions of all types and sizes; enrolls over 12 million students; employs nearly two million workers; and, accounts for roughly 3 % of the gross national product. Of its 12 million students more than 50 % are women; approximately 17 % are minorities; 45 % are over age 25; and 42 % are part-time. However, higher education did not look like this 25 years ago. The system has undergone tremendous growth and change in recent years. Yet, despite significant success in adapting, these reports are evidence of *warning signs and trouble spots* in America's higher education system.

These three major studies have scrutinized the virtues and flaws of our nation's colleges and universities and have, for the most part, concurred in their findings. The implication from these *report cards* is that higher education is afflicted with some of the same mediocrity that has been spotlighted in secondary and elementary education over the past five years. On the

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whole, higher education may rate a *C*. In other words, the level of educational services being provided by our colleges is average. Regretfully, they are hardly the pillars of academic excellence that we want — and should — expect them to be.

The warning signs are ominous. Most standardized test scores for college graduates steadily declined from 1964 to 1982. Only half the students who start college with the idea of getting a bachelor's degree actually attain that goal. More and more students are moving into professional and vocational programs at the undergraduate level and are pursuing degrees in increasingly narrow fields, avoiding the liberal arts, sciences, and subjects that challenge their verbal skills. In addition, the physical plants and equipment of our colleges are rapidly deteriorating, and faculty salaries have not kept up with inflation.

What's happened? The reports blame most of higher education's ills on the curriculum that has become too narrow and specialized. America's colleges and universities now offer more than 1,100 different majors and programs. One of the consequences has been that the proportion of bachelor's degrees awarded in arts and sciences fell from 49% in 1971 to 36% in 1982. "The result," according to NIE's report *Involvement in Learning*, "is that the college curriculum has become excessively vocational in its orientation, and the bachelor's degree has lost its potential to foster the shared values and knowledge that bind us together as a society" (p. 10).

The assertion is supported by the Association of American Colleges report, *Integrity in the College Curriculum*, which states that the curriculum has given way to a marketplace philosophy: it is a supermarket where students are shoppers and professors are merchants of learning. "Fads and fashions, the demands of popularity and success, enter where wisdom and experience should prevail" (p. 2). As one student recently put it in one of my classes, "On too many campuses, the curriculum has become a self-service cafeteria through which students pass without being nourished." Using this student's analogy, today's college curriculum is equivalent to a diet of junk food as opposed to balanced meals. In some colleges students can earn the same number of credits for courses such as *stereo listening* or *checkbook management* as they can for courses in *history of western civilization* or *modern physics*.

What all this means is that our great institutions are at risk of becoming large vocational schools which prepare students for their first jobs rather than for their life's work. And in a changing world where the average person switches jobs five times in a career, this limits a student's ability to find work. Students need a broad educational background so they can adapt to the ebbs and flows of our economy.

Until recent years, the faculty primarily influenced the curriculum, not so now. The faculty has lost control over the curriculum. Too much influence is wielded by accrediting agencies and professional societies. These groups, while well-meaning, often stand as barriers to a good college education. For example, our NIE study found that one professional society dictates that the bachelor's degree program should involve as much as 80 percent of a student's work in his or her professional field. That greatly limits a student's exposure to the liberal arts and his/her future options in the workplace.

Perhaps most alarming, according to the studies, is that today's *smorgasbord curriculum* fails to adequately train students to think logically, reason thoroughly and analyze critically. All these are higher order skills students need to succeed in a changing world. What has become apparent is that today's college curriculum lacks cohesiveness and has become overrun by special interests and narrow fields of expertise which compromise the very integrity of a well-rounded education.

The National Endowment for the Humanities in its report *To Reclaim a Legacy* declared that the nation's colleges and universities "must re-share their undergraduate curricula based on a clear vision of what constitutes an educated person, regardless of major" (p. 2). As the AAC put it: "The problem with the American college curriculum is not that it has failed to offer up knowledge. The problem is that it offers too much knowledge with too little attention to how that knowledge has been created and what methods of inquiries have led to its creation" (p. 24). The report goes on to say, "as for what passes as a college curriculum, almost anything goes" (p. 2).

Another culprit in this mess is the sorry state of college teaching. These reports found that too much attention is being placed on research and not enough on improving instruction. The AAC found that "research, not teaching, pays off in enhanced reputation, respect of peers beyond one's own campus and access to funds" (p. 10).

Colleges must get back into the business of encouraging quality teaching. If our institutions of higher learning are to become the citadels of academic excellence that we expect them to be, our first priority must be to improve classroom instruction, not research.

The sad reality is that most four-year college faculty receive no training whatsoever in effective teaching and seem to pick up whatever they know about student development, curriculum or assessment by osmosis during their early years teaching. And, all too often, a professor's status is determined by the number of hours he/she teaches. There is a mistaken perception that the fewer, the better.

I've headed a major research agency and I believe very strongly in research. However, I also believe that we must achieve a better balance between quality research and quality teaching. Research, in my judgment, can enlighten and stimulate good teaching, but we must not let teaching become the second factor. They must have equivalent importance and be held in equivalent regard. After all, the standard by which an institution is ultimately judged is its quality of teaching. It is quality of teaching that enables an institution to flourish and grow and prepare students to lead productive lives.

The NIE report *Involvement in Learning* recommended that colleges begin to improve teaching by devoting greater resources to first- and second-year students. The best professors

should be assigned to freshmen and sophomore classes rather than being closeted in some isolated portion of a hall with graduate students, working on a research paper. While such activities have their place, the purpose of the American college should be first to educate, and second to conduct research. I would even take it one step further and urge that officials responsible for personnel decisions should increase the weight given to teaching in the process of hiring, tenure, promotion and compensation. The reports had other recommendations as well.

Involvement in Learning urged that all bachelor's degree recipients should have at least two full years of liberal education. In most professional fields, that would mean extending undergraduate programs beyond the usual four years. The reason for this recommendation, the NIE report said, was that "no one knows precisely how new technologies will affect the skills and knowledge required by our future labor force. We thus conclude that the best preparation for the future is not narrow training for a specific job, but rather an education that will enable students to adapt to a changing world" (p. 43).

The National Endowment for the Humanities study, headed by then-director and now-Secretary of Education William Bennett, declared that students should be exposed to classical works, ranging from Homer, Plato, Aristotle, and Vergil to Dickens, Wordsworth, Marx, and T. S. Eliot.

The AAC's *Integrity in the College Curriculum* also urged that changes be made in the way the Ph.D. degree is awarded. Currently, a Ph.D. is given on the basis of an evaluation of a candidate's research skills. But if teaching in American higher education is to become more effective and responsible, the Ph.D. degree should be awarded to students on the basis of good teaching skills as well.

What America's 12 million college students need most are two things: a better curriculum and better teaching. If we can improve those two things, then our students will be well-prepared to enter the exciting last years of the 20th century.

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